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3 Morphological patterns in Hungarian
4 children with Williams syndrome and the
5 rule debates

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12 **Abstract**

13 Williams syndrome (WMS), a rare neurogenetic disorder, has been in the forefront of
14 research in cognitive psychology for the last 10 years. Studies of grammatical development in
15 14 Hungarian WMS children are presented: they were examined on tasks testing regular and
16 irregular morphology; measures of digit span were also obtained. Results on the production of
17 accusative and plural forms confirmed for Hungarian that regardless of the frequency of the
18 item, inflected forms of irregulars are harder to produce, and often regularized in WMS, re-
19 vealing a dissociation between the rules of grammar vs. the mental lexicon. Overall perfor-
20 mance on the morphology task is associated with the capacity of phonological short-term
21 memory: subjects with higher span perform better on both tasks. The specification of the
22 surprisingly close relation of phonological short-term memory with the linguistic measures
23 awaits further study.

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25 *Keywords:* Williams syndrome; Morphology; Rules; Lexicon; Working memory; Language development

26 **1. Introduction**

27 Williams syndrome (WMS) is a rare (1 in 25,000) genetically based condition
28 caused by micro-deletion of genes on the long arm of chromosome 7. Children with
29 this syndrome are characterized by relatively preserved linguistic and social skills;
30 they are sometimes called hypersociable because of their affective communicative
31 style and their often indiscriminately positive approach of unfamiliar people. In
32 contrast to their good linguistic abilities they show serious deficits in the domain of
33 spatial cognition and motor skill learning. Despite their problems of visual–spatial

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34 organization they show surprisingly excellent performance in face recognition, which
35 might indicate a dissociation in the involvement of the dorsal and ventral brain
36 streams responsible for visual processing. Individuals with WMS also have specific
37 brain morphological differences compared to controls: decreased overall brain and
38 cerebral volumes, disproportionate volume reduction of the brainstem with a relative
39 preservation of cerebellar and temporo-limbic structures (Reiss et al., 2000).

40 In the past decade WMS has attracted the attention of cognitive psychologists,
41 being a population in which good linguistic skills stand in sharp contrast with serious
42 deficits in other cognitive domains (for a survey see Bellugi, Lichtenberger, Mills,
43 Galaburda, & Korenberg, 1999, and the special volume edited by Bellugi & St.
44 George, 2000). Although language is a relative strength in WMS, it is not an intact
45 faculty of the mind: both language development and linguistic performance deviate
46 from the normal in several aspects. In our studies presented here we would like to
47 focus on morphological development in WMS children. Our aim is to test the pro-
48 posed within-language dissociation between the rule system of grammar and the
49 associative network of the mental lexicon (e.g., Clahsen, 1999; Clahsen & Almazan,
50 1998), focusing on performance on regular and irregular nominal inflection in a
51 language with a rich morphology.

52 *1.1. Language in WMS*

53 After a late and difficult start of language development, people with WMS achieve
54 remarkably fluent and grammatical speech by school age, with a conspicuously so-
55 phisticated and large vocabulary containing many infrequent and unusual words,
56 and a constant urge to chat. Their linguistic skills are in sharp contrast with the
57 general level of their cognitive abilities. The linguistic profile of WMS people is
58 uneven, too. Besides brilliant expressive language, we often find that language
59 comprehension is much more limited, their speech is also often irrelevant and in-
60 appropriate, and some of their words and phrases may lack semantic content. The
61 cognitive and linguistic profiles of WMS people have received different accounts by
62 different researchers and research groups. Ursula Bellugi and her colleagues em-
63 phasize the dissociation between language and cognition, pointing to the semantic
64 abnormalities in WMS language (e.g., Bellugi, Lichtenberger, Jones, Lai, & St.
65 George, 2000). Another approach draws attention to the within-language dissocia-
66 tion of grammatical rules and lexical processes. On this view, WMS children have a
67 relatively intact grammar, combined with a much weaker lexical system. Therefore,
68 regularizations are characteristic of their performance. This view is based on Pinker
69 and Prince's (Pinker, 1991; Pinker & Prince, 1994) hybrid model of language, and is
70 taken up by Clahsen in connection with WMS (Clahsen, 1999; Clahsen & Almazan,
71 1998). A third view is developed by Annette Karmiloff-Smith and her research
72 group. Their central claim is that it is not only the representations or processes of
73 language that are impaired in the first place, but as cognitive impairments are a result
74 of a complex epigenetic process, language development in WMS takes a different
75 course, so we might find deviant mechanisms even behind apparently normal per-
76 formance (e.g., Karmiloff-Smith et al., 1997).

77 *1.2. The mental lexicon of WMS people*

78 People with WMS generally perform at a relatively high level on standardized
79 vocabulary tests (although their performance is still below their chronological age,
80 see e.g., Grant et al., 1997; Jarrold, Baddeley, & Hewes, 1998; Karmiloff-Smith et al.,
81 1998), but several tasks show that their semantic organization is different from that

82 of normal controls. Bellugi, Wang, and Jernigan (1994) found in a semantic fluency
83 task that people with WMS produce more infrequent words than normal controls.
84 Another observation revealing unusual organization of the lexicon is that of Vicari,
85 Brizzolara, Carlesimo, Pezzini, and Volterra (1996a) and Vicari, Carlesimo, Bri-
86 zzolara, and Pezzini (1996b): when subjects have to reproduce words from a word
87 list, normal controls typically reproduce more high frequency words; in people with
88 WMS no bias is shown towards frequent words in recall. According to the within
89 language dissociation view (Marcus, Gary, Brinkmann, Clahsen, Wiese, & Pinker,
90 1995; Pinker, 1991; Pinker & Prince, 1994) the two distinct systems can be selectively
91 impaired. On this view, Williams syndrome is an example of an intact rule system
92 with an abnormally operating mental lexicon. In morphology this means that reg-
93 ularly inflected forms (e.g., talk → talked; purportedly generated by the rule system)
94 are produced easily and correctly, but the retrieval of irregular forms (e.g., go → -
95 went; stored as a whole in the mental lexicon) is impaired, with signs of overgen-
96 eralization. In Clahsen and Almazan's study (1998) English-speaking WMS children
97 could inflect existing regular stems virtually as well as unimpaired controls, while
98 their performance on irregulars was poor; they often overgeneralize the regular suffix
99 both to existing regular forms and to novel words rhyming with existing irregulars.
100 This dissociation is also reflected in their performance on inflecting derivational
101 forms. The results are interpreted as selective impairment of the lexical module of
102 language, as an inability to retrieve information from subnodes of lexical entries.

103 *1.3. Working memory and languages organization in WMS*

104 Another cognitive system relevant to language in WMS is working memory.
105 According to Baddeley and colleagues the real function of the phonological loop is
106 not to remember familiar words but to help learn new words (Baddeley, Gathercole,
107 & Papagno, 1998). From this point of view the rate of vocabulary development is
108 influenced by working memory capacity. In agreement with this conception, in
109 childhood large individual differences are found in phonological loop capacity
110 (Gathercole & Adams, 1993). Many studies have found strong correlation between
111 STM performance and vocabulary knowledge, and STM span was found to be a
112 strong predictor of later vocabulary knowledge (Gathercole & Adams, 1993, 1994;
113 Gathercole, Hitch, Service, & Martin, 1997; Gathercole, Willis, Emslie, & Baddeley,
114 1992). Neuropsychological evidence comes from studies of children with specific
115 language impairment (SLI). SLI children usually lag behind their age in terms of
116 vocabulary development (Bishop, 1992). They show poor performance on both digit
117 span and non-word repetition tasks and recall much fewer phonologically novel
118 names than control children (Taylor, Lean, & Schwartz, 1989). There is also an
119 increasing amount of data concerning the association between working memory and
120 language development in genetic syndromes associated with some mental handicap
121 (Grant et al., 1997; Jarrold, Baddeley, & Hewes, 1999). Wang and Bellugi (1994)
122 compared digit span in individuals with Williams and Down syndrome, using groups
123 matched on overall IQ. Williams syndrome children had a mean digit span of 4.6,
124 whereas the mean span of the Down syndrome group was only 2.9.

125 Our Hungarian studies are relevant for several reasons. One of the central issues
126 with regard to language is the proposed contrast between a rule-based and an item-
127 based system, or Grammar and Lexicon within the language faculty, which, ac-
128 cording to a strong domain specific view, are associated with different brain areas
129 and can be selectively impaired, (Clahsen, 1999; Pinker, 1991). We show data from
130 an agglutinative language with different stem types fit this model. Besides replicating
131 studies adapted to a typologically different language, we are applying new methods

- 132 as well in the framework of a longitudinal study, the Hungarian Williams Syndrome
133 Research Project. We are gathering data from a single WMS subject pool on dif-
134 ferent aspects of language, spatial cognition, elementary vision, visual integration,
135 implicit and explicit rule extraction, and memory (for some preliminary data, see
136 Lukács, Racsomány, & Pléh, 2001).
- 137 Our three aims in the study presented here are all related to the debated issues of
138 the nature of language in WMS subjects:
- 139 1. Is there a clear dissociation between regular and irregular morphology in Hungar-
140 ian WMS subjects? Hungarian with its rich morphology and competing suffixation
141 patterns provides a more suitable ground to contrast rule-based and item-
142 based processes than languages studied previously, with more possibilities to vary
143 and control for frequency effects.
- 144 2. We wanted to clarify possible frequency effects in morphological overgeneraliza-
145 tions in Hungarian WMS subjects. This has relevance to the issue whether WMS
146 data support a dual system (Clahsen & Almazan, 1998) or basically a simple sys-
147 tem of language representation (Thomas et al., 2001).
- 148 3. We also looked for possible relationships between phonological short-term mem-
149 ory and morphological performance.

150 2. Materials and methods

151 2.1. Subjects

152 The target group tested in this study consisted of 14 children and young adults
153 with Williams syndrome; their mean age was 13.2 years (ranging from 5.9 to 19.6
154 years at the time of testing). Subjects were recruited through the Hungarian Williams
155 Syndrome Association, and most of them were assessed in a summer holiday camp
156 for WMS children and their families. Children were tested individually; all of them
157 were assessed on the digit span and a morphology task. In this paper we obtained
158 control data on primary school 1st, 2nd and 3rd graders, altogether from 29 subjects,
159 in the age range of 7–10. This age range broadly corresponds to the verbal mental
160 age range of the WMS group as measured by the Hungarian version of the Peabody
161 Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT). The average PPVT performance of the WMS
162 group was 95.55 (SD = 26) points, which corresponds to the average performance of
163 normal children between the age of 84 and 120 months, according to Hungarian
164 standard scores (Csányi, 1976).¹

165 2.2. Procedure

166 2.2.1. Verbal short-term memory

167 A standard measure of verbal short-term memory was taken by the digit span
168 task. In this test, subjects hear digit sequences of increasing length and attempt to
169 repeat them immediately. Digits were taken from those between 1 and 9, and none of
170 them are repeated within one sequence. The score is the amount of digits in the
171 longest sequence correctly repeated; there were two token series with each length.

¹ Normal children are used as a reference group instead of a proper control group, as we are trying to decipher differences in the patterns of performance. The issue of proper controls is much debated in the literature: in our study choosing either age-matched or mental age-matched controls would have led to reduction in variance as most of the children in the relevant age groups perform at ceiling level on the morphology task.

172 The subject was given the score if she/he could repeat any of them; if the subject
173 failed both trials of one length, testing terminated.

174 2.2.2. Morphology task

175 This task contrasted regular versus irregular inflectional forms on the one hand,
176 and frequent versus infrequent items on the other. 32 color drawn picture pairs were
177 used in this experiment, those of Pléh, Palotás, and Lorik (2002), complemented by
178 new picture pairs to adjust the test to our question concerning frequency effects in
179 regular and irregular suffixation. The test had 4 items in each of the 3 regular and 4
180 irregular classes, 2 frequent and 2 rare. The ‘irregularity’ issue in Hungarian is related
181 to the type of alternations a given stem undergoes. MacWhinney (1978) gives a
182 psycholinguistic exposition of them, together with basic experimental data on their
183 unfolding in children. Frequency estimates were based on Füredi and Kelemen
184 (1989). Table 1 shows examples for each stem type. The first 4 lines are non-pro-
185 ductive, ‘irregular’ items. These items are non-productive, therefore, in their case the
186 saturation of the paradigm (how many items follow the pattern) is indicated with the
187 numbers in the first column.

188 2.3. Procedure

189 The picture depicting an individual object shown first from each pair. After asking
190 the child to provide the name for the object, they were shown the second picture
191 from the pair, and were asked questions prompting either a plural (‘What are these?’)
192 or an accusative (‘What is the boy eating?’) forms (accusative and plural questions
193 are alternating, one is requested for each word, and the two forms are taken to be
194 equivalent, as they result in the same stem allomorph). There was no time limit on
195 the response of the subject. Responses were tape-recorded. The independent vari-
196 ables were the stem type and the frequency of the word, the dependent variable was
197 the correctness of the response. A response was coded as correct if it was properly
198 inflected; it was considered incorrect if it was overregularized or unmarked.

Table 1
Examples of stimuli used in the morphology task

Stem class and item number	Examples	
	Frequent	Rare
1. Epenthetic <i>n</i> = 104	majom–majmok ‘monkey–monkey acc.’	bagoly–baglyot ‘owl–owl acc.’
2. Lowering <i>n</i> = 71	hal–halak ‘fish–fish pl.’	sál–sálak ‘scarf–scarf acc.’
3. Shortening <i>n</i> = 222	kenyér–kenyerek ‘bread–bread pl.’	bogár–bogarak ‘beetle–beetle pl.’
4. v-insertion <i>n</i> = 8	kő–követ ‘stone–stone acc.’	távcső–távcsövet ‘telescope–telescope acc.’
5. ‘Low V’-final	kutya–kutyát ‘dog–dog acc.’	teve–tevék ‘camel–camel pl.’
6. C-final	asztal–asztalok ‘table–table pl.’	pingvin–pingvinek ‘penguin–penguin pl.’
7. ‘Non-low V’-final	cipő–cipőt ‘shoe–shoe acc.’	hattyú–hattyút ‘swan–swan acc.’

199 **3. Results**

200 Fig. 1 shows errors of WMS children by regularity and frequency. In accordance
201 with previous observations, WMS children seem to regularize exceptional items, and
202 they err less on regulars (for previous research on the issue in Hungarian see Lukács
203 & Pléh, 1999; Lukács, 2001).

204 A two-way analysis of variance on errors with the factors of REGULARITY and
205 FREQUENCY, regularity had a significant main effect ($F_{1, 52} = 8.74, p < .05$),
206 while the frequency effect was not significant ($F_{1, 52} = 0.97, n.s.$), and the interaction
207 of the two factors was not significant either ($F_{1, 52} = 0.46, n.s.$). Results of the
208 analyses performed over the errors on different subtypes of regulars and irregulars
209 only show a significant effect of frequency in the case of -v inserting stems (an ir-
210 regular type).

211 Performance on irregulars is poorer, but interestingly enough overgeneralizations
212 also appear in one of the regular stem classes, in consonant ending stems, specifi-
213 cally. In irregulars, beside the general effect of regularity there is a clear frequency
214 effect in -v insertion stems (but none of the other irregular classes). This is also re-
215 lated to age: younger WMS children (under 10 years) are especially prone to over-
216 generalizations here, their mean errors being 0.3 and 1.6 for regulars and irregulars,
217 respectively, while in the older group the values are 0.6 and 0.6 both (see Fig. 2).

218 A two-way analysis of variance on control data has shown a significant main
219 effect for FREQUENCY ($F_{1, 104} = 9.8, p < .01$), REGULARITY also had a sig-
220 nificant main effect ($F_{1, 104} = 41.7, p < .01$) and interaction between the two fac-
221 tors was also significant ($F_{1, 104} = 4.1, p < .05$). So while WMS children did not
222 seem to be affected by item frequency on the morphology task, frequency did prove
223 to be a predictor of performance in control children. In irregulars, the mean error
224 rate for frequent items was .44, and for infrequent items .96, $t = 3.85, p < .001$.

225 Some interesting relationships hold between short-term memory measures and
226 morphological performance. Table 2 shows that low-span children made more
227 morphological errors both on regulars and irregulars. Following our earlier division,
228 low- and high-span subjects in the Digit span task were identified on the basis of a
229 median division. Subjects with a span of 3 and below versus groups of 4 and more,

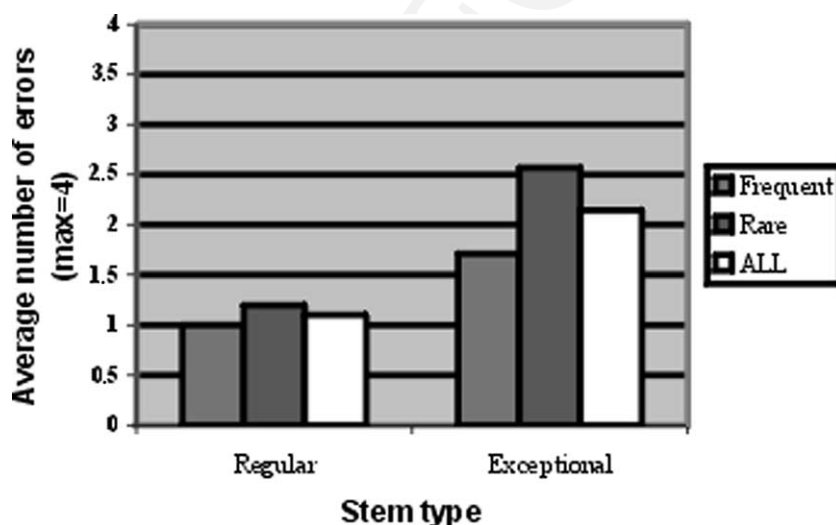


Fig. 1. Frequency and regularity effects on errors in WMS subjects.

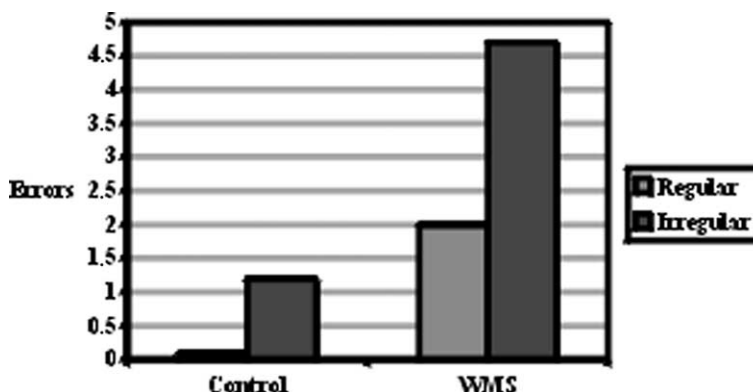


Fig. 2. Number of morphological errors in WMS and normal control subjects.

Table 2
Effects of digit span differences on morphological errors in WS subjects

Stem type	Low-span	High-span	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Regular	2.75	0.40	5.72	.05
Exceptional	6.25	1.60	6.61	.05
All	9.00	2.00	8.83	.01

230 with 8 and 6 members, respectively. This implies that working memory capacity is
 231 related to grammatical proficiency as well. Low-span WMS subjects in general had
 232 more morphological errors, but their error rate was especially high with exceptionals.
 233 At the same time, in the control group no significant relationships were obtained
 234 comparing low- and high-span subjects. Low-span subjects (with the span of 4) had
 235 an average of 1.47 errors with irregulars, while high-span subjects (5 and over) had a
 236 mean of 1, $F < 1$. Thus, in a control group with comparable mental age morpho-
 237 logical overgeneralization seems to be insensitive to differences in working memory.
 238 The same pattern emerges in correlations between digit span and results on the
 239 morphology task in the two groups. In WMS children, the correlation between digit
 240 span and number of errors was significant in both regulars ($r = -.52$, $p < .01$) and
 241 irregulars ($r = -.63$, $p < .02$). Control data do not show any correlation between
 242 verbal short-term memory and morphological performance (regulars:
 243 $r = .05$, $p > .1$; irregulars: $r = -.04$, $p > .1$).

244 **4. Discussion**

245 Regarding the three issues raised in designing the experiment, our results gave the
 246 following answers. In the morphology task we obtained the usual superiority of
 247 performance on regulars over performance on irregulars, which corresponds to the
 248 proposal made by Pinker (1991) and Clahsen and Almazan (1998), that WMS people
 249 have an intact rule system and an impaired lexicon. There was no overall effect of
 250 frequency. A strong main effect of frequency would challenge this view: if perfor-
 251 mance on regulars had been affected by frequency, it would be a symptom of regulars
 252 being treated by the same memory system as irregulars. In WMS many irregulars are
 253 regularized, i.e., treated by the rule system, and show no frequency effects. Within
 254 this overall picture, a moderate item frequency sensitivity was observed in some stem

255 types (one regular and one exceptional). Normal controls seemed to follow a similar
256 pattern in that they also had more errors on irregulars, but in their case overregu-
257 larization of irregulars decreased with age. This may be interpreted as evidence for a
258 retarded language development in WMS as suggested by Thomas et al. (2001), at the
259 same time maintaining a basic dual system.

260 In the WMS population, working memory span of children seemed to be a more
261 central modulator than token or type frequency of words. Working memory span
262 which was shown to be related in WMS to the knowledge of rare words (Lukács et
263 al., 2001), was also, and not trivially, related to performance on the morphology
264 task. It is too early to draw conclusions, but this may suggest that grammatical
265 proficiency has some intricate relations to working memory, too. Working memory
266 might help to move irregular items to the item-based storage system, as a general
267 mechanism supporting learning new words (Baddeley et al., 1998). As a more general
268 implication of our results relevant to WMS research, we suggest that some of the
269 non-homogeneity of WMS children on cognitive and behavioral measures (empha-
270 sized by Bellugi et al., 2000; Jarrold et al., 1998) might reduce, at least in linguistic
271 aspects to differences in verbal working memory capacity. This is especially war-
272 ranted by the fact that no similar working memory effects were observed in normal
273 controls. Our further studies broadening the age-range within both our clinical and
274 especially in our control samples might help to articulate this suggestion.

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