

1 Running head: PREDICTIVE PROCESSING AND LANGUAGE DISORDER

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10 **Predictive processing and developmental language disorder**

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19 **Author note**

20 This work was supported by Economic and Social Research Council International Centre

21 for Language and Communicative Development (LuCiD) [ES/S007113/1 and

22 ES/L008955/1]. We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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Abstract

Purpose: Research in the cognitive and neural sciences has situated predictive processing – the anticipation of upcoming percepts – as a dominant function of the brain. The purpose of this article is to argue that prediction should feature more prominently in explanatory accounts of sentence processing and comprehension deficits in developmental language disorder (DLD).

Method: We evaluate behavioural and neurophysiological data relevant to the theme of prediction in early typical and atypical language acquisition and processing.

Results: Poor syntactic awareness – attributable in part to an underlying statistical learning deficit – is likely to impede syntax-based predictive processing in children with DLD, conferring deficits in spoken sentence comprehension. Furthermore, there may be a feedback cycle in which poor syntactic awareness impedes children’s ability to anticipate upcoming percepts, and this in turn makes children unable to improve their syntactic awareness on the basis of prediction error signals.

Conclusion: This article offers a re-focusing of theory on sentence processing and comprehension deficits in DLD, from a difficulty in processing and integrating perceived syntactic features, to a difficulty in anticipating what is coming next.

Keywords: developmental language disorder (DLD), predictive processing, error-based learning, first language acquisition, syntax

46 **Sentence processing and comprehension deficits in children with developmental**
47 **language disorder**

48 Around seven percent of English-speaking children are affected by developmental
49 language disorder (DLD), defined as a severe language deficit in the absence of a clear
50 biomedical cause (Bishop, Snowling, Thompson, & Greenhalgh, 2016; Norbury et al., 2016).
51 DLD is characterised by impairments in spoken sentence comprehension and production,
52 although in the current article we focus on comprehension alone. This includes difficulty
53 understanding long sentences such as *the boy in the red jumper is making tea for the woman*
54 *in yellow* and complex sentences (e.g. passives) such as *the girl was pinched by the crab*
55 (Norbury, Bishop, & Briscoe, 2002).

56 Sentence comprehension deficits in DLD are commonly linked to limitations in the
57 speed or capacity of cognitive processing (see Leonard, 2014, pp. 271–303, for review). In
58 support of this view, children with DLD are reported to be slower than age-matched peers to
59 make grammaticality judgements (Wulfeck & Bates, 1995), and to identify target words
60 during sentence listening (Stark & Montgomery, 1995). Furthermore, performance profiles
61 similar to those of children with DLD (e.g. the mis-processing of tense and agreement
62 morphemes) can be elicited in typically developing children by increasing the speed of
63 spoken sentence stimuli by 50% (Hayiou-Thomas, Bishop, & Plunkett, 2004).

64 To date, explanatory accounts of sentence comprehension deficits in DLD have
65 placed little emphasis on predictive processing, defined as the implicit anticipation of
66 upcoming percepts. Instead, emphasis has been on identifying the mechanisms deficient in
67 the processing of *perceived* stimuli, and determining how such deficits lead to a breakdown
68 in sentence comprehension. For instance, a recent study by Gillam, Montgomery, Evans, and
69 Gillam (2019) used factor analysis to identify four latent variables associated with spoken
70 sentence comprehension deficits among 117 children with DLD: (i) fluid reasoning; (ii)

71 controlled attention; and (iii) long-term language knowledge; which together affect sentence
72 comprehension by way of (iv) complex working memory. Gillam et al. (2019) provide one of
73 the most sophisticated inquiries to date into sentence processing and comprehension deficits
74 in DLD, due to a large sample size and a comprehensive battery of linguistic and cognitive
75 tasks. Nevertheless, as is common of explanatory accounts in this domain, no reference is
76 made to deficits in anticipating upcoming stimuli, with focus instead on how the constructs
77 identified relate to processing inefficiency with respect to perceived input, and the effect that
78 this has on sentence comprehension.

79 **Predictive processing in typically developing children**

80 There is, however, good reason to think that the absence of a role for prediction in
81 explanatory accounts of sentence processing and comprehension deficits in DLD is a mistake.
82 Research has shown the anticipation of upcoming stimuli to be an important component of
83 typical sentence processing and comprehension. For instance, eye-tracking studies using the
84 visual world paradigm, in which participants view an array of objects on a computer screen
85 while listening to a sentence, show that by two to three years of age typically developing
86 children make anticipatory eye movements towards the appropriate object (e.g. a cake) when
87 exposed to a sentence fragment containing an informative verb (e.g. *the boy eats* ____ ; Mani
88 & Huettig, 2012; Borovsky, Elman, & Fernald, 2012).

89 Visual world paradigm data illustrate how any information available to the listener
90 may form the basis of anticipatory language processing, from linguistic information at all
91 levels – for instance lexical semantics (i.e. the *eat/cake* association) and syntax (i.e.
92 awareness that the verb *eat* is in this instance transitive) – to features of the visual
93 environment (i.e. the target and distractor images). In the current article, however, focus is on
94 children’s use of syntactic awareness to anticipate upcoming syntactic features, such as

95 grammatical classes (e.g. [NOUN], [VERB]), inflectional morphemes (e.g. *-s*, *-ing*, *-ed*), and
96 syntactic structures (e.g. the passive; *was* [PAST PARTICIPLE] *by* [SUBJECT]).

97 Electroencephalography (EEG) research has been key in isolating a neural signature
98 associated with the apparently automatic identification of violations of syntax-based
99 predictions made during spoken sentence exposure. The early left anterior negativity (ELAN)
100 – a negative inflection of the recorded electrophysiological waveform at approximately 200
101 milliseconds after stimulus onset – is associated with the online detection of syntactic
102 anomalies in spoken sentences such as *tomorrow I will going to the park* (see Friederici,
103 2006, for review). Evidence of ELAN components during anomalous spoken sentence
104 exposure in children aged just two and a half suggests that the anticipation of upcoming
105 syntactic information is a standard feature of sentence processing early in typical
106 development, as it is in adulthood (Friederici, 2006).

107 The ELAN is one of three major signatures commonly discussed with respect to
108 sentence processing, in addition to the P600 – a positive inflection approximately 600
109 milliseconds after stimulus onset associated with late sentence-level reanalysis following the
110 detection of a syntactic anomaly – and the N400 – a negative inflection approximately 400
111 milliseconds after stimulus onset associated with the detection of a semantic anomaly. P600
112 and N400 signatures emerge earlier than the ELAN among typically developing children,
113 suggesting that online syntax-driven anticipatory processing is a relatively advanced sentence
114 comprehension strategy (Friederici, 2006).

115 **The benefits of syntax-based predictive processing**

116 Syntax-based predictive processing confers two primary advantages. First, prediction
117 makes online sentence processing efficient by preparing the listener to rapidly resolve
118 ambiguity and integrate perceived inputs into a comprehensible mental representation
119 (Ferreira & Chantavarin, 2018). Second, prediction error may drive learning, with

120 unanticipated inputs eliciting heightened attention and marked increases in neural activity
121 consistent with updates in the knowledge base guiding prediction and its underlying neural
122 structure (Rabagliati, Gambi, & Pickering, 2016). With respect to syntax-based predictive
123 processing, this knowledge base – the child’s syntactic awareness – incorporates implicit,
124 probabilistic understanding of syntactic categories such as [NOUN] and [VERB], and of
125 distributional regularities such as progressive (i.e. *is* [VERB]-*ing*) and passive (i.e. *was*
126 [PAST PARTICIPLE] *by* [SUBJECT]) adjacency relations. Where a perceived input does not
127 align with predictions, updates to this knowledge base and its underlying neural structure
128 may be made with the aim of improving the precision of future predictions (den Ouden, Kok,
129 & de Lange, 2012; Friston, 2005).

130 Our position is not, however, that syntax-based prediction is *essential* for either
131 sentence comprehension or the development of syntactic awareness. In any given
132 environment multiple cues (e.g. semantic and pragmatic information) determine the
133 efficiency and accuracy with which a sentence is comprehended. Furthermore, there is
134 evidence that comprehension and learning are possible in the absence of anticipation on any
135 basis (e.g. lexico-semantic or syntactic; Huettig & Mani, 2016). In the aforementioned eye-
136 tracking work by Mani and Huettig (2012), for instance, sentence comprehension was
137 recorded even among children in lower language centiles, who made fewer anticipatory eye
138 movements towards the target in the visual array. For these reasons, our position is that
139 predictive processing has a *facilitatory* rather than *essential* role in sentence comprehension
140 and the development of syntactic awareness. We consider the implicit anticipation of
141 upcoming syntactic features to follow naturally from reaching a standard of syntactic
142 awareness, bringing with it increased sentence processing efficiency and comprehension
143 accuracy, as well as the error-driven fine-tuning of syntactic awareness.

144 **Predictive processing deficits in children with DLD**

145 There is reason to believe that children with DLD may fail to engage in syntax-based
146 predictive processing, and that this contributes to the sentence comprehension deficits
147 characteristic of this population. The aforementioned eye-tracking studies reporting verb-
148 information-based anticipation, for instance, show that rates of pre-emptive eye movements
149 towards the target are positively correlated with vocabulary size (Mani & Huettig, 2012).
150 This is important because children with DLD commonly have smaller vocabularies than their
151 age-matched, language-typical peers, and so may similarly be expected to anticipate less
152 following informative verb exposure.

153 Additionally, in EEG research, ELAN components elicited in response to
154 syntactically anomalous sentences in typically developing children are often absent or
155 irregular among children with DLD, suggesting a specific difficulty in anticipating syntactic
156 information (Friederici, 2006). Importantly, EEG research often reports broadly standard
157 N400 and P600 components among children with DLD, signifying relatively minor
158 difficulties in semantic parsing and the late repair and recovery of sentence meaning. This
159 suggests that many children with DLD have not reached the standard of syntactic awareness
160 required to engage in automatic, syntax-driven anticipatory processing, and therefore
161 continue to depend on relatively immature processing strategies – i.e. semantic parsing and
162 late sentence-level reanalysis – in order to bolster sentence comprehension. While such
163 strategies may be sufficient in early development, they may not meet the linguistic challenges
164 faced by older children, namely the processing and comprehension of long or complex
165 spoken sentences. In this case, the ability to anticipate upcoming features may be a
166 significant advantage. Protracted reliance on immature processing strategies may explain
167 discrepancies in the speed of sentence processing and the accuracy of sentence
168 comprehension between many children with DLD and their age-matched, language-typical
169 peers.

170 The basis of predictive processing deficits in DLD

171 Syntax-based predictive processing rests on implicit, probabilistic knowledge of
172 syntactic categories and morpho-syntactic dependencies. For most children, establishing this
173 knowledge base is straightforward, and rests on an adeptness at implicitly identifying
174 recurrent patterns in the language environment; a skill known broadly as *statistical learning*.
175 Typical development follows a relatively smooth trajectory from early rote-learned
176 holophrases (e.g. *daddy gone*), through semi-productive slot-and-frame constructions (e.g.
177 *_____ gone*), towards abstract syntactic structures approximating the adult end state (e.g.
178 [SUBJECT] *has* [PAST PARTICIPLE]) (Tomasello, 2005). In contrast, children with DLD
179 have been described as engaging in the protracted rote-learning and production of sentence
180 structures (Hsu & Bishop, 2010). For instance, while typically developing children appear to
181 combine prior syntactic awareness with an inference regarding a given target word's
182 syntactic class in order to use that target accurately in novel phrases with assorted argument
183 structures, children with DLD tend to use novel target words in new phrases that retain the
184 argument structure of the phrase in which that target word was taught (e.g. Skipp, Windfuhr,
185 & Conti-Ramsden, 2002).

186 Similar evidence that children with DLD may fail to learn abstract distributional
187 regularities from speech input comes from artificial grammar studies, in which learning is
188 monitored while controlling between-class transitional probabilities, co-occurrence
189 frequencies, and the distance of dependencies (e.g. Hsu, Tomblin, & Christiansen, 2014; see
190 Lammertink, Boersma, Wijnen, & Rispens, 2017, for a meta-analysis of studies examining
191 statistical learning in DLD). In such studies, participants with DLD often show deficient
192 learning of abstract dependencies of the form A-X-B, where A and B are the target dependent
193 elements (e.g. [DETERMINER]-X-[NOUN]) and X is a set of intervening items of varying
194 length (e.g. *the girl was pinched by [the] naughty, little [crab]*).

195 Relatedly, Hsu and Bishop (2014) tested the ability of seven- to eleven-year-old
196 children with DLD to learn linguistic and non-linguistic sequences. In the linguistic task, lists
197 of words known to the children were presented for immediate recall. Unbeknown to the
198 children, these word lists contained regularly occurring sequences which were expected to
199 elicit faster and more accurate recall if implicit sequence learning was not deficient. Poor
200 implicit learning among children with DLD was evidenced by little improvement in recall for
201 regularly occurring word sequences relative to age-matched control children. This pattern of
202 performance was, however, in line with younger children matched in grammatical ability.
203 Hsu and Bishop (2014) report correlated deficits among children with DLD in a non-
204 linguistic task measuring participants' ability to rapidly and accurately identify regular
205 changes in the location of a green creature on a computer screen. The authors argue that
206 results indicate a domain-general deficit in the acquisition of sequential information that has
207 an especially detrimental impact on the development of syntactic awareness.

208 **Summary**

209 The literature reviewed in this article support the following account. Some children
210 with DLD have statistical learning deficits that impact the acquisition of syntactic
211 abstractions (e.g. [NOUN], [VERB]) and morpho-syntactic dependencies (e.g. *was* [VERB]-
212 *ed*). Given this deficient knowledge base, children with DLD may be unable to anticipate
213 upcoming syntactic features, such as grammatical classes (e.g. [NOUN], [VERB]),
214 inflectional morphemes (e.g. *-s*, *-ing*, *-ed*), and syntactic structures (e.g. the passive; *was*
215 [PAST PARTICIPLE] *by* [SUBJECT]), and may therefore be unable to rapidly resolve
216 ambiguities and integrate perceived inputs into a comprehensible mental representation.
217 Extended reliance on early-emerging sentence processing strategies – including semantic
218 parsing and the late reanalysis of sentence-level meaning – may explain deficits in the speed

219 of sentence processing and the accuracy of sentence comprehension among children with
220 DLD relative to age-matched, language-typical peers.

221 Deficient syntax-based predictive processing may also place constraints on the
222 development of syntactic awareness. This suggests a feedback cycle in which a level of
223 syntactic awareness drives predictive processing and error coding, and error then feeds back
224 to fine-tune syntactic awareness. Error-based fine-tuning may not be a necessary precondition
225 to the development of syntactic awareness, in the sense that without error-based fine-tuning
226 syntactic awareness would not develop at all, but there is good evidence that it can facilitate
227 its development (den Ouden et al., 2012; Huettig & Mani, 2016). Indeed, the notion that
228 expectation violation can drive learning is central to many paradigms commonly used in
229 infant and child development research, including those monitoring pupil dilation, sucking
230 rates, gaze direction, and neurophysiological activity in response to surprising stimuli, such
231 as objects that move in unexpected ways and unpredictable human actions (Köster, Kayhan,
232 Langeloh, & Hoehl, 2020). Across paradigms, infants and children are more likely to attend
233 to surprising stimuli than unsurprising stimuli, plausibly in an implicit attempt to incorporate
234 unexpected behaviour into their mental models of the world. By not making syntax-based
235 predictions, children with DLD fail by default to make erroneous predictions that generate
236 error signals facilitating the fine-tuning of their syntactic awareness. This would be expected
237 to further constrain the ability to make syntax-driven predictions, widening the gap in
238 sentence processing and comprehension between many children with DLD and their age-
239 matched, language-typical peers. The relationship between syntactic awareness and the
240 ability to anticipate upcoming linguistic percepts is, therefore, likely to be reciprocal rather
241 than unidirectional.

242 **Importance, clinical implications, and future research**

243 A deficit in the ability to anticipate upcoming syntactic features is closely linked to
244 poor syntactic awareness, which is the hallmark of DLD. Therefore, while DLD is
245 heterogenous, it is plausible that the current account applies to the language profiles of many
246 affected children. This is of course not to say that syntax-based predictive processing is the
247 only source of sentence comprehension difficulties in this population. Low vocabulary size,
248 for instance, is just one alternative factor that may impede these children's ability to
249 understand the sentences that they hear. Rather, the predictive processing hypothesis
250 constitutes an important addition to the inventory of frameworks already employed to
251 understand this complex disorder.

252 The account presented here suggests that improving children's ability to anticipate
253 upcoming syntactic features will improve their spoken sentence comprehension. Despite the
254 account outlined being theoretically novel, practically this may involve the use of existing
255 evidence-based interventions that aim to enhance children's syntactic awareness, such as that
256 developed by Plante et al. (2014). These authors developed a treatment programme based on
257 the aforementioned A-X-B paradigm, and found that increasing exemplar variability, rather
258 than input frequency, prompted a significant improvement in children's use of morpho-
259 syntax. This is likely because varying the lexical constituents within a training structure
260 prompts children to attend to and memorise the stable syntactic elements within that
261 structure, as well as their association (e.g. *the* [NOUN] *is* [VERB]*ing*). The implication of the
262 account presented in the current report is that such approaches will – through improving the
263 child's implicit awareness of morpho-syntactic cooccurrence statistics – increase the child's
264 ability to anticipate upcoming syntactic features during spoken sentence exposure, supporting
265 rapid ambiguity resolution and the integration of perceived inputs into a comprehensible
266 mental representation. On hearing the fragment *the boy is-*, for instance, the child may
267 anticipate whatever verb follows to be marked with an *-ing* suffix. Future experimental

268 research should directly examine whether the rate of syntax-driven predictions made –
269 measured, for instance, using EEG or eye tracking methodologies – increases through high-
270 variability programs of intervention like that developed by Plante et al. (2014).

271 **Conclusion**

272 Previous explanatory accounts of sentence comprehension deficits in children with
273 DLD focus on a difficulty processing and integrating perceived inputs. However, the
274 anticipation of upcoming inputs – i.e. predictive processing – has been shown to play a
275 facilitatory role in typical sentence processing and comprehension, and should, therefore,
276 feature more prominently in explanatory accounts of DLD. Suggestive evidence of predictive
277 processing deficits in children with DLD comes from EEG research, which has identified
278 irregular ELAN components in this population. Evidence of limited implicit knowledge of
279 syntactic categories and morpho-syntactic dependencies – attributable in part to statistical
280 learning problems – provides a credible basis for such deficits. Future research should test
281 whether the signals of syntax-based predictive processing – e.g. anticipatory eye movements
282 or ELAN components – strengthen or stabilise following a programme of targeted
283 intervention.

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