

Neural processing of written language in deaf readers: An event-related potential analysis

Alison S. Mehravari & Lee Osterhout

Contact: amehrava@uw.edu

Program in Neurobiology and Behavior and Department of Psychology, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA

Introduction

Reading can be difficult for many deaf individuals – but some do become skilled readers

- 60% of deaf high school graduates read at or below a 4th grade reading level¹¹
- But: 10% read above an 8th grade level¹¹

Why? Phonological difficulties or lack of early language proficiency?

- Understanding phonology is important for hearing children learning to read
 - Also important for deaf children?
 - Lack of hearing → harder to learn about phonology
 - In deaf, better phonological knowledge sometimes associated with better reading skill^{2,5}
- Many deaf children not proficient in any language when they learn to read
 - Need to know any language to learn to read another?
 - Deaf children, when raised in a sign language-rich environment, learn a signed language naturally – but most not raised this way
 - Sign language skill sometimes associated with better reading skill^{1,3}
- Meta-analysis⁶ - variance in reading proficiency in deaf individuals is predicted:
 - 11% by phonological knowledge
 - 35% by overall language ability (in a signed or spoken language, independent of reading)
- Why this matters → What are the best ways to teach deaf children to read?

Objective: Use real-time measures of language processing (ERPs) to better understand how some deaf individuals read more proficiently than others

Individual ERP responses change with language proficiency and exposure

- Children with dyslexia & poor phonological skills show reduced or altered N400 priming to phonologically related words^{4,8}
- Size of P600 to grammatical violations increases with L1 proficiency¹⁰
- Size of N400 to semantic violations changes with L1 proficiency^{9,13}
- Some early L2 learners show N400s to grammatical violations^{7,12}

Research questions:

- 1) Do deaf and hearing individuals read proficiently using the same online language processing mechanisms?
- 2) Do deaf individuals from different language backgrounds (spoken vs. signed) read proficiently using the same online language processing mechanisms?

Methods

Participants: Severely/profoundly prelingually (<2 years of age) deaf adults (n=16), Age-matched hearing controls (n=15)

Procedure: Visual word-by-word presentation of stimuli, continuous EEG recorded from 19 scalp electrodes (10-20 system)

Sentence Violations (30 sentences/condition)

Well formed:	The huge house still <u>belongs</u> to my aunt.
Agreement violation:	The huge houses still <u>belongs</u> to my aunt.
Semantic violation:	The huge house still <u>listens</u> to my aunt.
Double semantic & agreement violation:	The huge houses still <u>listens</u> to my aunt.

Acceptability judgment at end of sentence. ERPs computed to onset of critical (underlined) word. Words presented for 600ms, 200ms ISI.

Word Pairs (30 pairs/condition)

Unrelated	raid – pear
Phonologically related	lair – pear
Orthographically related	dear – pear
Phonologically & orthographically related	wear – pear

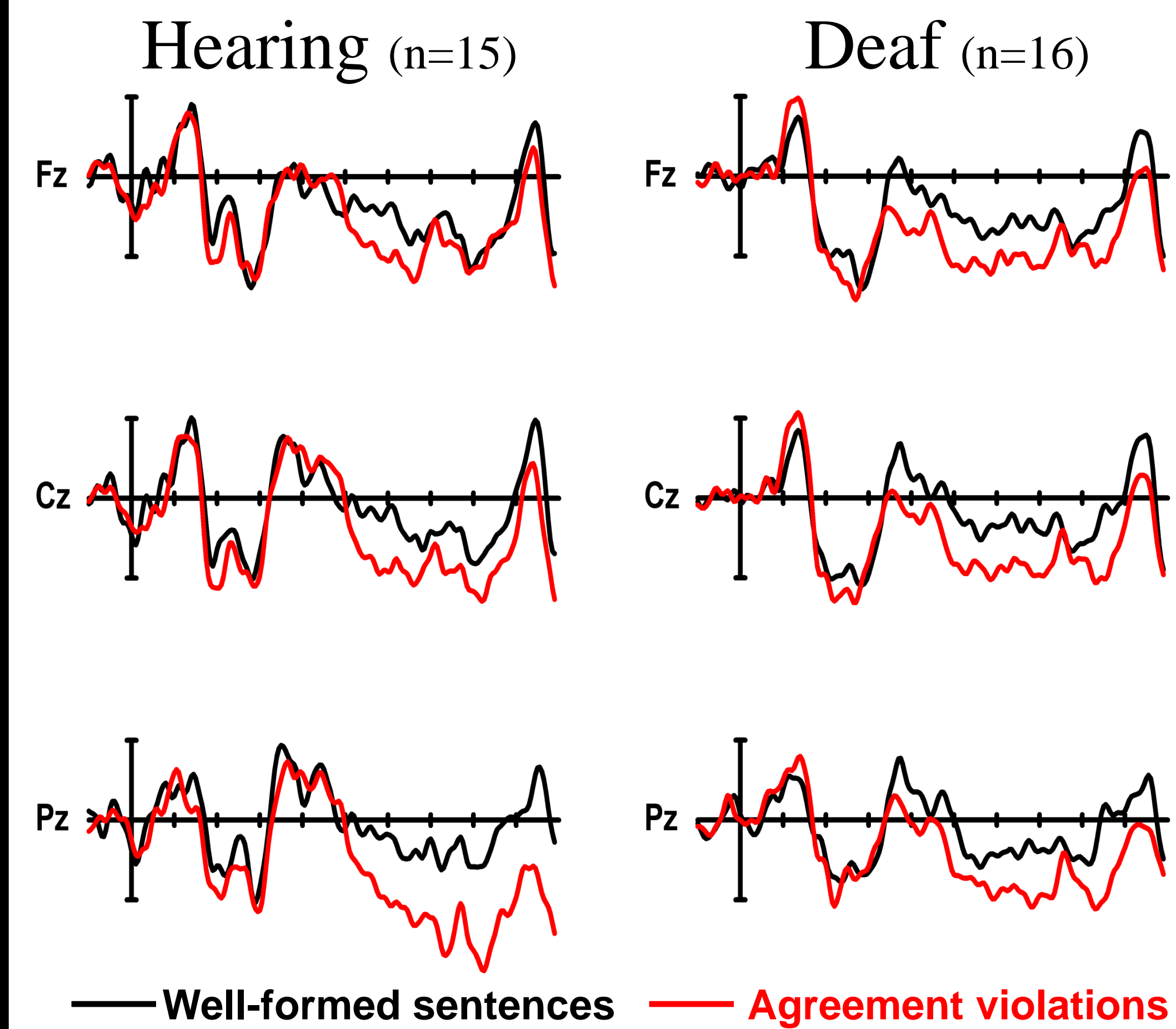
Lexical decision judgment after both words. ERPs computed to onset of target word. Prime presented for 600ms, 200ms ISI, target 800ms.

Subject/behavioral data:

- **Standardized reading comprehension:** Woodcock Reading Mastery Test word and passage comprehension (max score: 124). **Results:** Hearing: mean=103.33, SD=7.29, range: 87-116; Deaf: mean=88.75, SD=22.04, range: 40-115 (means significantly different, $P<0.05$)
- **Language background:** Self-rated American Sign Language (ASL) proficiency, language usage and history (1-7 scale, 1=all spoken, 7=all manual/signed)

Results

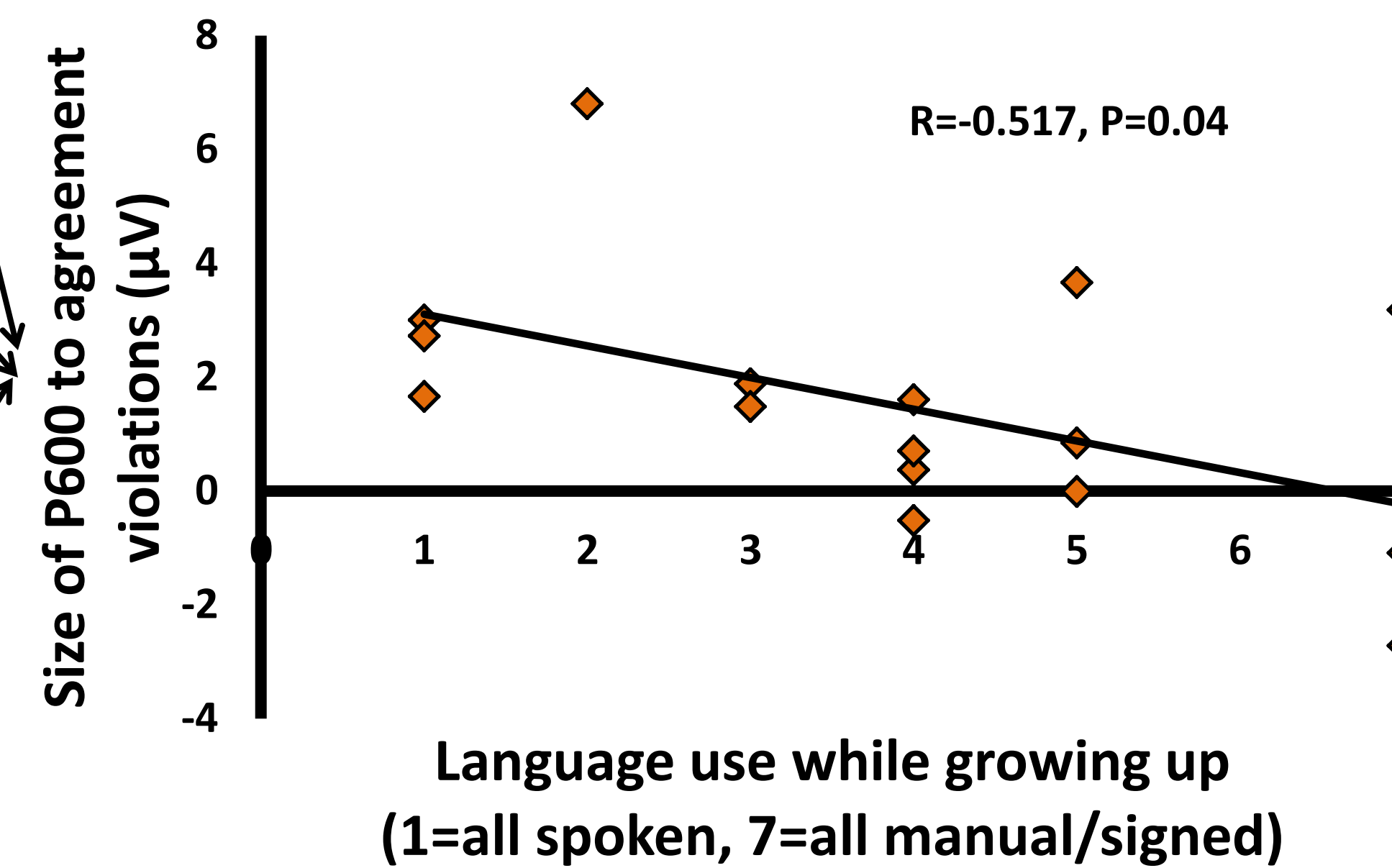
1. Deaf readers: P600 to agreement violations; some individuals show an earlier positivity



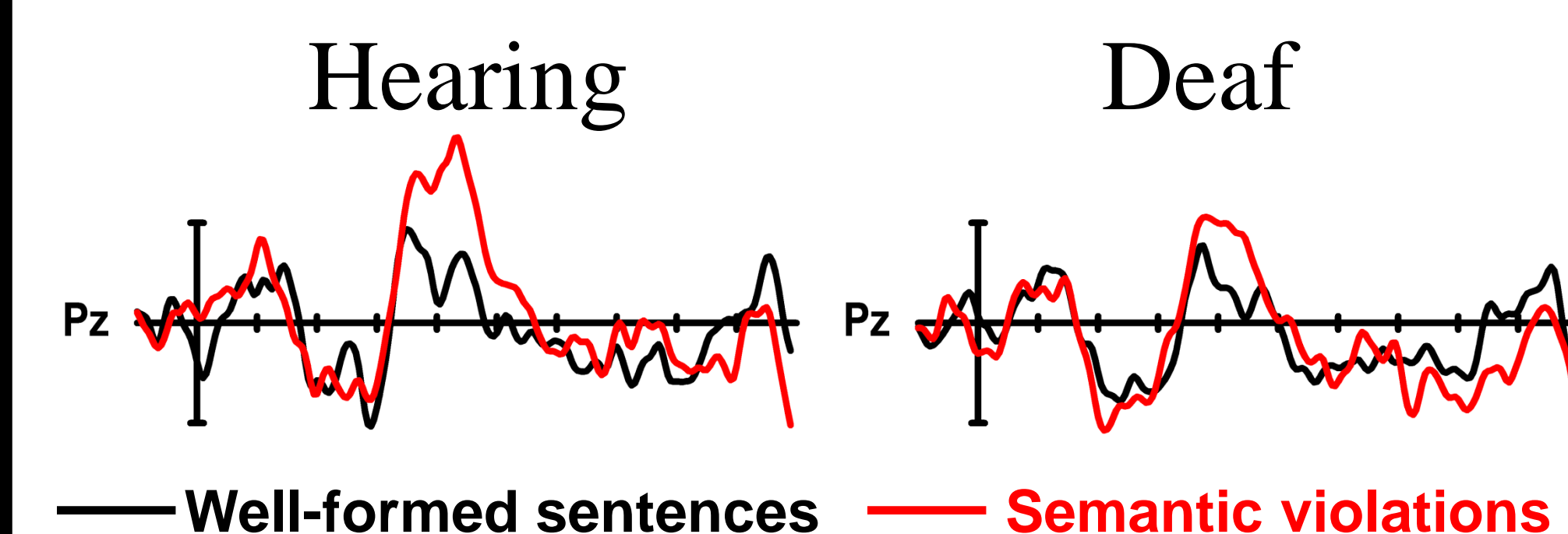
Significant difference between conditions in P600 (500-900ms) time window for both deaf ($P<0.05$) and hearing (electrode interaction, $P<0.01$) groups. Difference between conditions in 300-500ms time window for deaf group: $P=0.063$.

2. Growing up with more spoken English is correlated with larger P600s

Caveat: few participants from a sign-language rich background



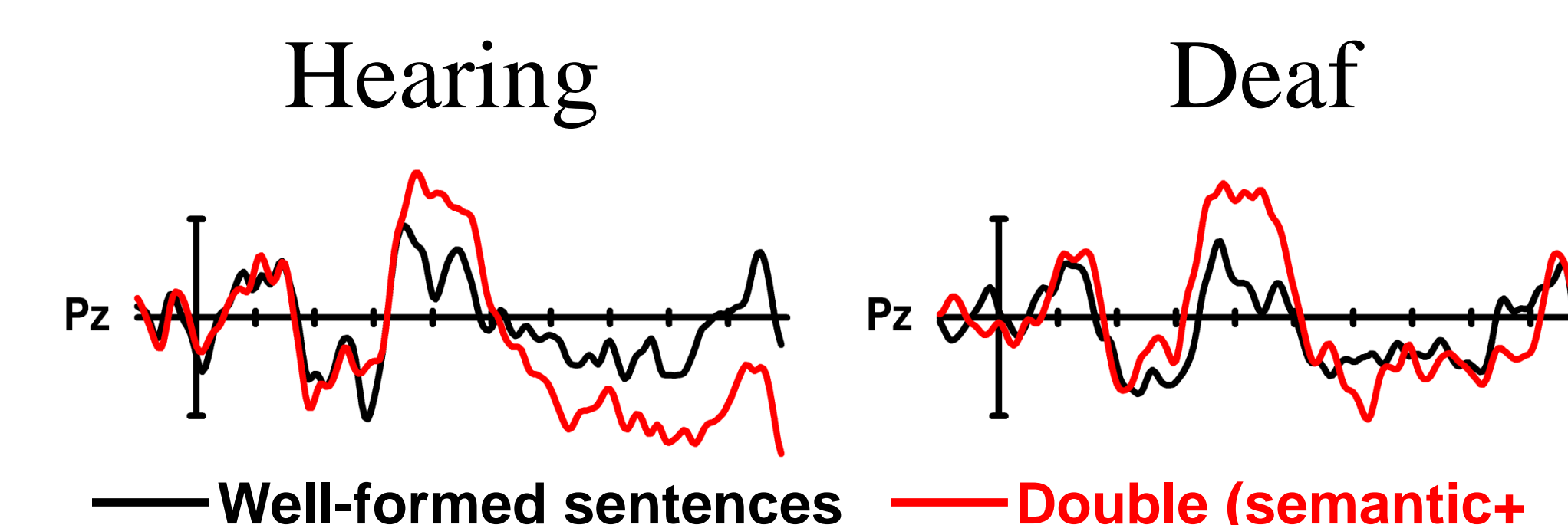
3. Deaf readers: Lack of robust N400 to semantic violations



Hearing: Significant difference between conditions in N400 (300-500ms) time window ($P<0.05$, across all midline electrodes)

Deaf: Difference between conditions in N400 (300-500ms) time window: $P=0.053$ (w/electrode interaction, larger posteriorly)

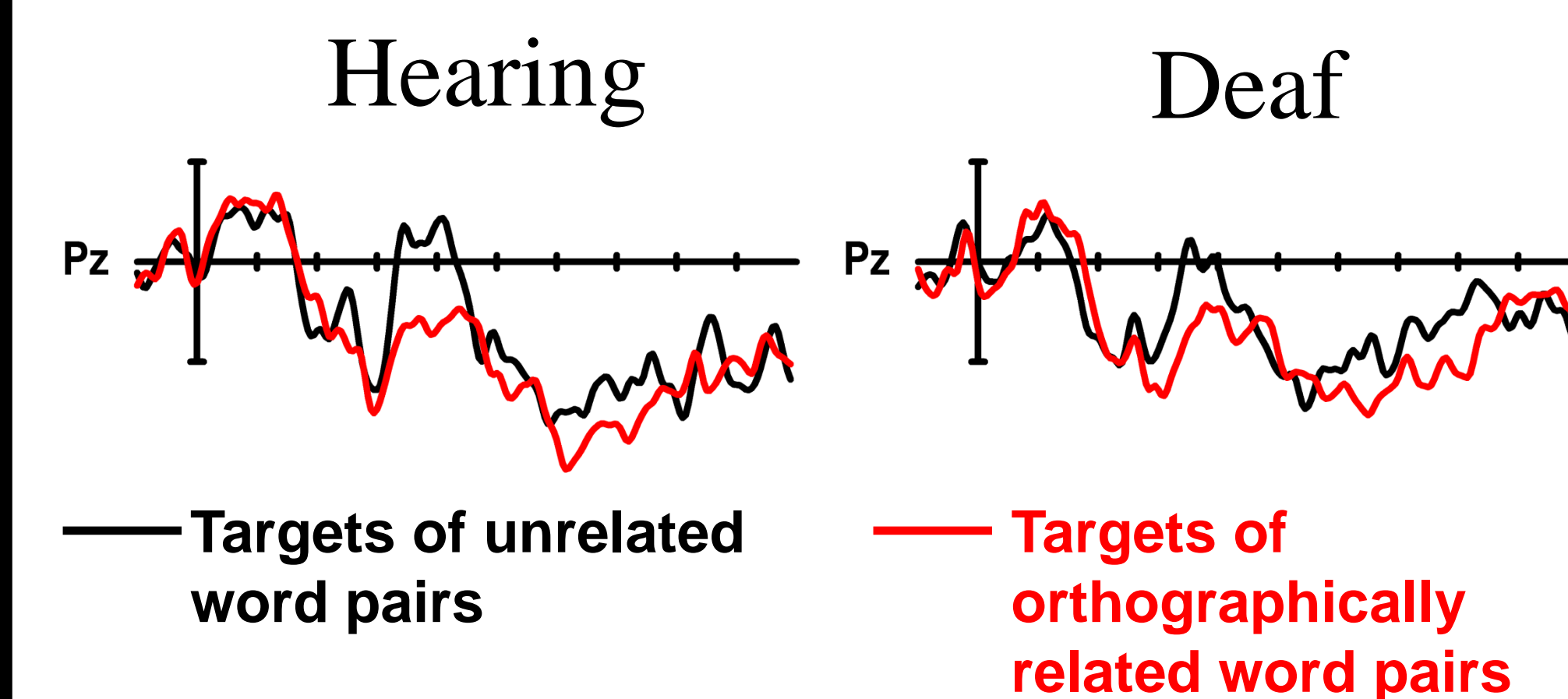
4. Deaf readers: Large N400 to combined semantic+agreement violations; no P600



Hearing: Significant difference between conditions in N400 (300-500ms) and P600 (500-900ms), $P<0.05$ w/electrode interaction time windows.

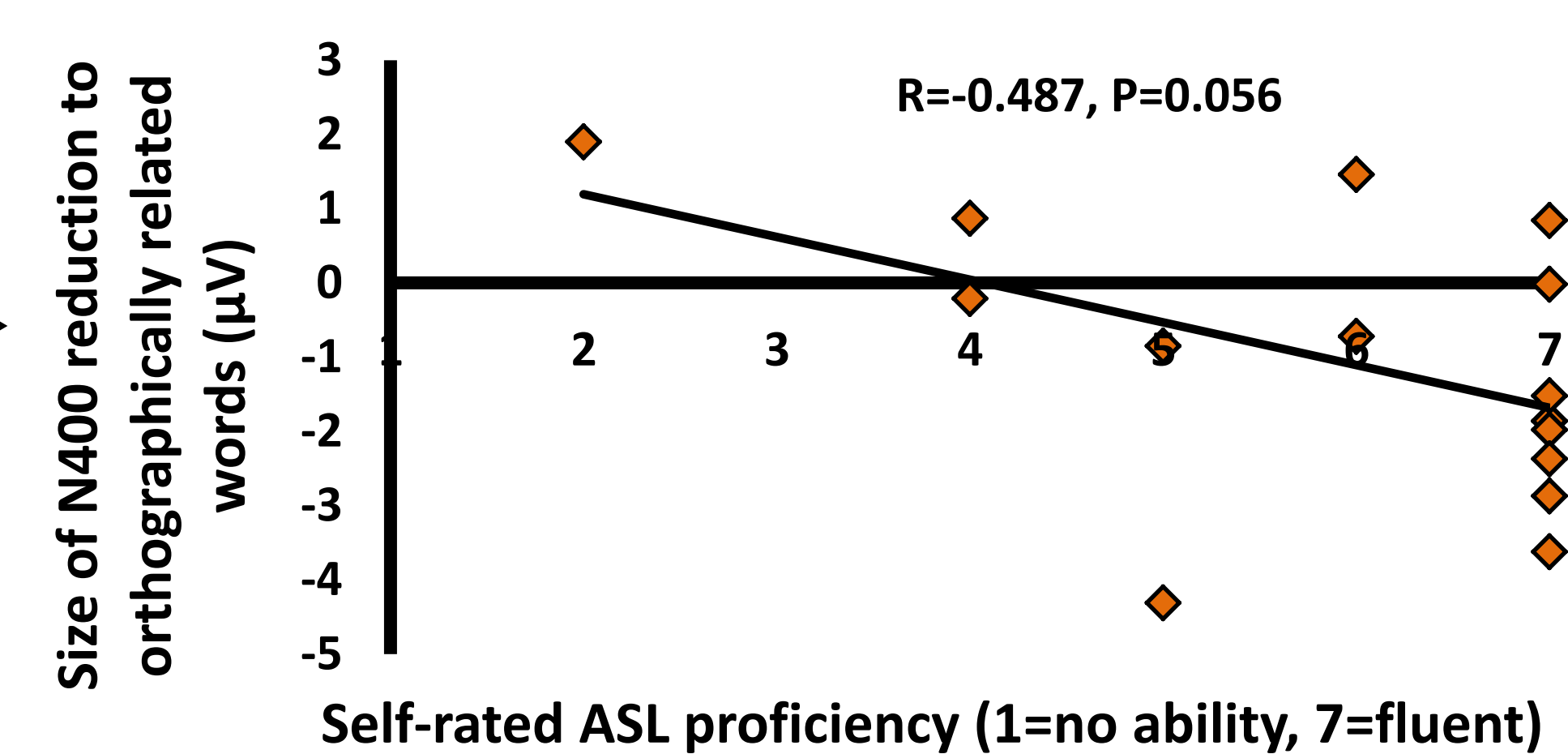
Deaf: Significant difference between conditions in N400 (300-500ms), $P<0.01$ w/electrode interaction time window.

5. Deaf readers: Larger N400 priming response to orthographically related words correlated with greater self-rated ASL proficiency



Targets of unrelated word pairs

Targets of orthographically related word pairs



Conclusions

Deaf readers can develop robust neural representations of English grammar

- Growing up in a spoken language environment is correlated with more robust representations.
- We have few participants from a rich sign language background, so cannot make conclusions about English syntactic understanding in that population.

Semantic violations do not elicit robust responses in our deaf participants

- May be a function of reading comprehension skill; will become clearer with a larger sample size

Combined semantic and agreement sentence violations elicit larger responses than semantic violations alone, but not in semantic- and agreement-specific ways.

- The sentence is recognized as “more wrong” (larger N400 than to semantic violations alone), but not specifically wrong in both semantics and agreement (no P600).
- Curious that P600s are elicited by agreement violations alone, but less to semantic+agreement violations

Proficiency in ASL is associated with a greater sensitivity to English orthography

- Experience with a visual language may enhance sensitivity to visual aspects of other languages.

Future Directions

Increase sample size in order to:

- Analyze relationships between online language processing and reading skill
- Better compare differences between deaf readers with different language backgrounds (especially growing up in a sign language-rich environment)
 - Can phonology and orthography be processed differently and still lead to the same reading comprehension skill?

References

1. Chamberlain, C., & Mayberry, R. L. (2008). American Sign Language syntactic and narrative comprehension in skilled and less skilled readers: Bilingual and bimodal evidence for the linguistic basis of reading. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 29, 367–388.
2. Colin, S., Magnan, A., Ecalte, J., & Leybaert, J. (2007). Relation between deaf children's phonological skills in kindergarten and word recognition performance in first grade. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 48(2), 139–146.
3. Hermans, D., Knoors, H., Ormel, E., & Verhoeven, L. (2008). The relationship between the reading and signing skills of deaf children in bilingual education programs. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 13, 518–530.
4. Jednorog, K., Marchewka, A., Tackowski, P., & Grabowska, A. (2010). Implicit phonological and semantic processing in children with developmental dyslexia: Evidence from event-related potentials. *Neuropsychologia*, 48, 2447–2457.
5. LaSasso, C., Crain, K., & Leybaert, J. (2003). Rhyme generation in deaf students: The effect of exposure to cued speech. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 8(3), 250–270.
6. Mayberry, R.L., del Giudice, A.A., & Lieberman, A.M. (2011). Reading achievement in relation to phonological coding and awareness in deaf readers: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 16(2), 164–188.
7. McLaughlin, J., Tanner, D., Pitkanen, J., Inoue, K., Valentine, G., & Osterhout, L. (2010). Brain potentials reveal discrete stages of L2 grammatical learning. *Language Learning*, 60, 123–150.
8. McPherson, W.B., Ackerman, P.T., Holcomb, P.J., & Dykman, R.A. (1998). Event-related brain potentials elicited during phonological processing differentiate subgroups of reading disabled adolescents. *Brain and Language*, 62, 163–185.
9. Newman, A.J., Tremblay, A., Nichols, E.S., Neville, H.J., & Ullman, M.T. (2012). The influence of language proficiency on lexical semantic processing in native and late learners of English. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 24(5), 1205–1223.
10. Pakulak, E., & Neville, H.J. (2010). Proficiency differences in syntactic processing of monolingual native speakers indexed by event-related potentials. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 22(12), 2728–2744.
11. Qi, S., & Mitchell, R.E. (2012). Large-scale academic achievement testing of deaf and hard-of-hearing students: Past, present, and future. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 17(1), 1–18.
12. Tanner, D., McLaughlin, J., Herschensohn, J., & Osterhout, L. (2013). Individual differences reveal stages of L2 grammatical acquisition: ERP evidence. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 16(special 02), 367–382.
13. Weber-Fox, C., Davis, L.J., & Cuadrado, E. (2003). Event-related brain potential markers of high-language proficiency in adults. *Brain and Language*, 85, 231–244.

Supported by the University of Washington Department of Psychology, NIDCD T32DC005361, and the Seattle ARCS Foundation