

The Role of Syntactic Priming in Second Language Comprehension

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7 Abstract

8 The role of syntactic priming is one central topic in language acquisition research. The paper
9 is to investigate the role of syntactic priming in language acquisition. In this context, the
10 paper firstly reviews the related study on the role of syntactic priming in language acquisition.
11 Then further studies on the relationship between syntactic priming and lexical structure are
12 made. Following this, syntactic priming effect on self-embedded sentences is evaluated and
13 extended in second language complex sentence comprehension. Finally, a number of
14 conclusions are drawn with respect to the role of syntactic effect on complex second language
15 sentence comprehension.

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17 **Index terms**— syntactic priming; sentence comprehension; language acquisition.

18 1 Introduction

19 syntactic priming is the facilitation of processing that occurs when a sentence has the same syntactic form as a
20 preceding sentence (Ledoux et al., 2007), is one central topic in the study of language acquisition. A number of
21 researchers show great interest in the role of syntactic priming in language comprehension. ??ranigan, Pickering,
22 and Stewart (2005) sought to provide evidence for syntactic priming in comprehension. They used whole sentence
23 presentation of garden path sentences in prime and target pairs. They found that relative clause targets were read
24 faster after relative clause primes than after complement clause primes. However complement clause targets were
25 not read significantly faster after complement clause primes than after relative clause primes. Thus priming effects
26 were found only for one structure but not for the other. In another test, transitive and intransitive sentences were
27 used. It showed that transitive targets were read faster after transitive primes than after intransitive primes.
28 Intransitive targets were also read faster after intransitive primes than after transitive primes. The last result
29 was slightly significant, however, and only by items. In a third test, main and reduced clause sentences were used.
30 Reduced clause targets were read faster after reduced clause primes than after main clause primes ($p < 0.05$), but
31 main clause targets were read significantly faster after main clause primes than after reduced clause primes only
32 by subjects. Thus the three tests found weak effects of structural priming on a whole.

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34 e-mail: zhangzhanhd@163.com Based on their results, Branigan et. al give some explanation on the mechanism
35 of syntactic priming, they propose that the process of sentence comprehension involves activating procedures
36 associated with syntactic rules or principles, and that these procedures remain at a heightened activation level
37 after being applied. It is therefore easier to apply these procedures next time they are required. Clearly priming
38 effects were purely syntactic; however, semantic influences were not excluded from the test materials, so the
39 results cannot be attributed solely to syntactic factors. Branigan et al also acknowledge that their results do not
40 make it possible to decide whether priming takes place on the basis of a single rule, a set of rules or a set of rules
41 applied in a specific order. They interpreted that, given that the study found evidence for pure syntactic priming,
42 it still does not make it possible to decide between principle-generated and schematic syntactic structures. So in
43 this sense it is necessary to investigate the relationship between syntactic priming and lexical structure.

44 **2 II.**

45 **3 Syntactic Priming and Lexical Structure**

46 Regarding the relationship between syntactic priming and lexical structure, Pickering and Branigan (1998) found
47 that when the same verb was used in both prime and target, subjects produced 17.2% more same type target prime
48 completions than target completions that were of the alternative type to the prime. This percentage dropped to
49 4.4 % when the sentences had different verbs. Priming with different verbs was stronger only when two priming
50 sentences were used before each target sentence. However, the study did not control for thematic structure, so
51 it is not sure that the priming effect was purely syntactic. Since a) thematic structure might be encoded in the
52 lexical entry of a verb; and b) a stronger priming effect was found when the verb was repeated, it is likely that the
53 effect was largely thematic. The authors also acknowledge that their results do not distinguish between syntactic
54 rules and sub categorization frames. Assuming that sub categorization frames are fixed schemata, the results are
55 ambiguous between rule-generated and schematic syntactic structures.

56 Cuetos, Mitchell and Corley (1996) made a study which provided evidence for long-term syntactic priming.
57 Two groups of Spanish seven-year olds participated in the study and were asked to read, over a two week period,
58 stories containing sentences which were biased towards a high attachment or low attachment relative clause
59 interpretation. For instance, in the sentence the daughter of the colonel with the limp, the relative clause with
60 the limp can be attached to the noun phrase headed by the daughter (high attachment) or to the colonel (low
61 attachment). Two weeks later, the children received no materials concerned with the study for a week, after
62 which they were tested for attachment preference. It was found that the children exposed to high attachment
63 bias materials tended to prefer high over low attachment relative to their pre-test performance. No effect of
64 the intervention was found for the children given the low attachment biased materials however. This result was
65 explained by saying that, while the study was under way, the children were exposed to materials with a high
66 attachment bias (a high attachment preference in Spanish had been established in an earlier study). If priming is
67 a long-term effect, then it cannot be explained in terms of the temporary raising of activation in a procedure. It
68 seems more plausible to suggests that exposure to a certain structure leads to a long-term change in the language
69 processing system in a manner akin to learning. Their last study suggests that syntactic priming is a form of
70 learning.

71 Cuetos et al.'s findings seem to provide support for the authors' tuning hypothesis. According to this
72 hypothesis, parsing preferences reflect the statistical regularities found in natural language. If tuning can be
73 equated with priming, then priming can be described as a kind of statistically driven learning, as suggested by
74 Bock, Dell, Griffin, Chang and Ferreira (1996). Bock et al. (1996) found an effect of priming even when ten
75 unrelated sentences intervened between prime and target. It was concluded that:

76 The persistence of structural priming over 10 unrelated sentences drives home the point that these effects are
77 not transient, and cannot be attributed to a momentary change of activation. We need to consider an alternative
78 mechanism for the priming effect, one that entails a more persistent change in the processing system (8).

79 Based on this, the authors propose the following account of priming:

80 [...] Structural priming can be seen as a dynamic vestige of the process of learning to perform language. We
81 call this process "learning to talk", in a very literal sense. It is not learning language, but learning to produce it.
82 So "learning to talk" is learning procedures for efficiently formulating and producing utterances. What structural
83 priming shows is that these procedures undergo fine-tuning in every episode of language production (11).

84 Not truly as the expectation that syntactic priming would provide evidence for phrase structure rules, research
85 on long-term memory for surface form provided evidence which is more consistent with the experience-based
86 approach, which takes language exposure is vital to language comprehension. Taken together, the work on
87 long-term memory for sentences shows that previous sentence comprehension episodes can influence subsequent
88 sentence comprehension. Therefore it appears that sentence comprehension makes use of long-term sentence
89 memory. This possibility also allows for individual differences in grammatical knowledge to arise from individual
90 differences in linguistic experience. Research on such differences is reviewed in the next section. The review is
91 focused on comprehending self-embedded sentences.

92 **4 III. Comprehension of Self-Embedded Sentences**

93 It is important to point out why experiments were carried out to study the comprehension of self-embedded
94 sentences. As we know, Chomsky (1965) considered the principle-based approach can give a good account for
95 the creativity of self-embedded sentences. However, such account was criticized by experience-based approach
96 and related evidence for phrase structure did not constitute evidence for the principle-based approach, since
97 such evidence could be explained just as well in terms of the experience-based approach. This observation was
98 made quite early on by ??iller (1962), who noted an effect of grammatical structure on sentence comprehension
99 'does not show that some form of grammatical structure must be preferred to, say, a Markovian structure of the
100 sort that communication theorists talk about.' (754). Similarly, after Miller and Isard (1963) found effects of
101 grammar on sentence comprehension, they stated that, 'It is not possible to discredit [the] Markovian model in
102 terms of our present data.' (224). It was suggested in both studies that the only way to discriminate between
103 probabilistic and principle-based accounts of sentence comprehension was to investigate the comprehension of
104 self-embedded sentences: experience-based models like that of Hockett (1955) indicate that subjects should not

105 be able to comprehend such sentences, while Chomsky's principle-based theory indicates that subjects should be
106 able to comprehend them.

107 To clarify this, Miller and Isard carried out two experiments. In the first informal experiment, they found that
108 subjects did not treat self-embedded sentences as normal sentences. Firstly, when asked to repeat the sentences,
109 subjects repeated them with list intonation. Secondly, subjects could only recall about seven words from the
110 sentences, suggesting that they were treating the sentences as lists of words. A third result was that subjects
111 needed to be presented with each self-embedded sentence two or three times before they could understand it. This
112 study therefore indicated that center-embedded constructions are harder to comprehend than normal sentences.
113 However, Miller did not explain these results, in spite of the fact that it has original aim to distinguish between
114 principle-based and probabilistic finite state accounts.

115 The difficulty of self-embedded sentences relative to non-self-embedded sentences is the primary evidence for a
116 finite state model. This is because the finite state model depicts humans as weakly productive. Given the rarity
117 of self-embedded sentences in natural discourse, difficulties in comprehending them can simply be attributed to
118 insufficient experience with such structures. It is not clear, however, why subjects should have been able to
119 understand the sentences after several presentations. It is supposed that there might be some inductive process
120 going on. The problem for Hockett's model is that it does not possess a mechanism for inductive reasoning.
121 Hockett himself did believe that self-embedded sentences could be understood through induction, and it might
122 be assumed that he simply could not find a way to incorporate this capability into his model. Syntactic priming
123 effects in comprehension were supported with event-related potentials (ERP) evidence (e.g. Ledoux et al, 2007).
124 These effects were observed to be dissociable from effects of the repetition of verbs across prime and target
125 sentences. Repetition of syntactic form may result in changes in the electrophysiological response associated with
126 a facilitation of syntactic analysis. Thus, it is reasonable that comprehension changes of verbs in self-embedded
127 sentences that followed reduced relative prime sentences might be at least partially localized to changes in the
128 representation of syntactic information at the verbs.

129 Arai and Mazuka (2014) tested priming phenomena in adult Japanese participants. The results showed adults
130 relative to children had stronger priming. Furthermore language users with greater linguistic competence of
131 the passives showed stronger priming, suggesting a tight relationship between the effect of priming and the
132 development of grammatical competence. In addition, they found that priming effect decreased over time. It
133 is logic that second language complex sentence comprehension is affected by priming effect, and such effect is
134 correlated with second language grammatical competence.

135 IV.

136 **5 Conclusion**

137 The paper examines syntactic priming effect in language acquisition; it shows that the syntactic priming effects
138 are clearly seen in sentence comprehension, especially in complex second sentence comprehension. Priming effect
139 is correlated with grammatical knowledge, strong priming effect can be observed obviously in self- ¹



Figure 1: The

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5 CONCLUSION

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