

1 **How do children acquire early grammar and build multiword utterances?**

2 **A corpus study of French children aged two to four.**

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4 This corpus study examines whether early multiword utterances are built around lexical or
5 grammatical categories. We explored lexical, pragmatic and grammatical word types in relation to a
6 global index of linguistic maturation (Mean Length of Utterance, hereafter MLU). We also
7 investigated whether these associations, when they exist, remain stable across age and socio-
8 economic status (SES), and whether there is a specific set of predictors for French. The data used
9 was a large database of 312 speech samples from French-speaking children aged two to four with
10 high or low SES. All the words in the corpus were annotated with a Part Of Speech Tagger (POS-
11 T), which is part of the CHILDES set of computational tools. While all the linguistic categories
12 correlated with MLU, hierarchical regression analyses showed that mainly the grammatical word
13 types (with positive coefficients) and secondarily the pragmatic word types (with negative
14 coefficients) were the most consistent predictors of MLU. The relationship of MLU to lexical,
15 pragmatic and grammatical word types was quite similar across SES groups, but tended to weaken
16 as MLU increased with age. Three word types - personal pronouns, determiners, and prepositions -
17 each accounted for more than 50% of the variance, and together accounted for 73% of the variance
18 in MLU. These findings support a view of language development according to which children use
19 distributional regularities to build a rudimentary grammar, which in turn provides them with a basic
20 cognitive architecture to learn adult grammar.

1 **Introduction**

2 Over the last 50 years, many researchers have attempted to explain how children learn
3 language so quickly (Brown & Berko, 1960; Brown & Fraser, 1963; Braine, 1963; Brown, 1973;
4 Valian, 1986). Various hypotheses have been proposed that differ crucially in the type of
5 information (e.g., distributional, semantic, grammatical innatism, etc.) that the child uses to start
6 producing multiword utterances. However, methodological and theoretical limitations made it
7 difficult to compare alternative hypotheses.

8 This long-standing debate has recently been reinvigorated by the design of new
9 experimental methods (Tomasello, 2000; Sebastián-Gallés, 2007), as well as by the existence of
10 large corpora databases (MacWhinney, 2005). While the main aim is the same as 50 years ago,
11 researchers have focused on more detailed aspects of early language development. One central issue
12 today is to determine the time when children begin to use grammatical information, first in
13 perception and later in production. Perception studies have found that before their second birthday
14 (i.e. before they produce multiword utterances), children use grammatical information to process
15 linguistic input (e.g., Shi & Melançon, 2010; Sebastián-Gallés, 2007, for a review).

16 As regards productive language, the debate is still open. Two alternative hypotheses have
17 recently been advanced. According to Tomasello (2000), early multiword utterances (i.e., produced
18 around the age of two) are based on knowledge of lexical patterns, and creative use of grammar
19 does not start until around the age of four. According to Ninio (2006), children begin to make use of
20 grammatical information during their third year of life.

21 This study is designed to extend our understanding of the emergence of grammar. Using a
22 large corpus of French children aged two to four, we explored whether there is evidence that
23 children use grammar productively close to their second birthday (what we call the *early-grammar*
24 hypothesis) or whether, alternatively, productive use of grammar is only evident close to their
25 fourth birthday (what we call the *late-grammar* hypothesis).

26

1 **Early multiword utterances and grammatical development**

2 During the first two years of life, children develop a partial knowledge of grammatical
3 words (van Heugthen & Johnson, 2010; Shi & Melançon, 2010). For instance, by the end of their
4 first year of life, children can categorize novel words into nouns using determiners (Shi, Werker &
5 Morgan, 1999; Hallé, Durand & De Boysson-Bardies, 2008), or based on *frequent frames* (e.g.,
6 “the X on”; Mintz, 2003). Then, during the second year, they learn to extract complex patterns
7 across morphophonologically inconsistent natural language (e.g., agreement: Nazzi, Barrière,
8 Goyet, Kresh, & Legendre, 2011; article-noun dependencies: van Heugten & Johnson, 2010). Thus,
9 by their second birthday, they have implicit knowledge of at least surface grammar.

10

11 However, there is no agreement on when children begin to make use of this information in
12 language production. Usage-based proponents claim that this does not occur until around the fourth
13 birthday. According to this approach, early multiword utterances are organized totally around
14 individual verbs and other predicative terms (Verb Island hypothesis, Tomasello, 2000; 2003;
15 Lieven, Pine, & Balwin, 1997). This hypothesis has been supported by data showing that children
16 produce the same lexical patterns as those that they hear (Lieven, Salomo, & Tomasello, 2009), and
17 also by experimental studies using *tracer* elements (i.e., a nonce word that the child is expected to
18 produce in different syntactic patterns). In several studies, Tomasello and colleagues have shown
19 that children around two and three years make conservative use of new verbs, while around the age
20 of four, they can use these new items creatively (Akhtar & Tomasello, 1997). Thus, according to
21 this approach (called here the *late-grammar* hypothesis), early multiword production is guided
22 mostly by the knowledge children have of item-based patterns, and grammar develops *after* a period
23 of multiword production. One limitation of these studies is that they do not provide direct evidence
24 that children are not using grammar early in multiword production. Even if children do organize
25 multiword utterances around the lexicon, we cannot rule out that they may also use grammar. This
26 hypothesis has also been criticized for resulting in the following paradox stated by Naigles, (2002):

1 how is it possible that children learn to process grammar so easily and they need so much time to
2 use it in production? It is important to explore whether grammar, and not only lexicon, helps
3 children to build early utterances.

4
5 An alternative proposal has been advanced recently by Ninio (2006, 2011). In agreement
6 with linguistic theories (e.g., Kaplan & Bresnan, 1982; Pollard & Sag, 1994; Chomsky, 1995),
7 Ninio suggests that language development crucially involves the learning of dependency
8 relationships between verbs and complements (e.g., direct object, subject, etc.). This means that
9 multiword utterances are built around verbs, which is compatible with the usage-based approach,
10 but implies that children do encode formal grammatical relationships from the very beginning. To
11 support this approach, Ninio reinterprets the tracer experiments described by Tomasello and others
12 (e.g., Tomasello & Brooks, 1998) and proposes that while they do not use abstract syntactic
13 representations, two-and-a-half-year-old children transfer the syntactic structure of known verbs to
14 newly acquired ones (e.g., transitive to intransitive). This proposal is also compatible with data
15 from Conwell and Demuth (2007) showing that three-year-old children can make dative alternation
16 with newly acquired verbs (e.g., I pilked the cup to Peter, I pilked Peter the cup). Thus, according to
17 this approach (here, referred as to the *early-grammar* hypothesis), children need a rudimentary
18 knowledge of grammatical relationships in order to produce multiword utterances. One appealing
19 aspect of this proposal is that it suggests a solution to the perception-production paradox (Naigles,
20 2002): indeed, children might benefit very early on from the skills they learnt prelinguistically.
21 However, it is important to note that there are important differences in how researchers interpret the
22 above data. Researchers from the generativist tradition such as Conwell and Demuth (2007) and
23 Valian, Solt, and Stewart (2009) take their results as evidence for abstract grammar. On the
24 contrary, Ninio (2006, 2011) proposes that children merely have surface knowledge of grammatical
25 relationships. Therefore, more empirical research is needed to understand how children build early
26 multiword utterances.

1 **This study**

2 The main aim of this study is to explore whether early multiword utterances are built on
3 rudimentary knowledge of grammar (the *early-grammar* hypothesis) or whether alternatively they
4 are built around lexical items (the *late-grammar* hypothesis). From a general perspective, we aim to
5 determine how young children acquire grammar. Data for this study was obtained from a large
6 corpus of spontaneous speech samples of French children in the period in which they acquire
7 grammar (between two and four years of age).

8 The data analysis of this study consisted of two steps. In the first step, using an automatic
9 part-of-speech tagger (Parisse & Le Normand, 2000a, 2000b), words in the corpus were annotated
10 according to a list of linguistically motivated word classes (see Appendix) which were categorized
11 as either lexical, grammatical or pragmatic; MLU was also obtained for each child. In the second
12 step, multiple regression analyses were performed to examine whether MLU variance could be
13 explained by word diversity within each major category (i.e., lexical, grammatical and pragmatic)
14 or within specific categories (e.g., determiners, personal pronouns, etc.). One important feature of
15 this approach (as opposed for instance to Bates & Carnevale, 1993) is that by exploring lexicon,
16 grammar and MLU separately, multiple regressions make it possible to compare the contributions
17 of lexicon and grammar independently i.e., grammar and MLU are not assumed to be equivalent.

18
19 The rationale for using this approach is that if children build their multiword utterances
20 around specific word types (e.g., lexical versus grammatical), increases in such word types should
21 explain variation in MLU. For example, if early multiword utterances are item-based, as defended
22 by the *late-grammar* hypothesis, in order for the child to produce longer utterances she/he will have
23 to learn new predicates; therefore increases in lexical diversity should correlate with MLU. On the
24 contrary, if early multiword utterances have a rudimentary grammatical organization (*early-*
25 *grammar* hypothesis) increases in the grammatical words used to encode such relationships should

1 predict an increase in MLU. Two methodological issues require further attention: the validity of
2 MLU and the linguistic coding.

3
4 MLU has been used since Brown (1973) as a core measure in language acquisition (e.g.,
5 Bornstein, Haynes, Painter, & Genevro, 2000; Meline & Meline, 1981; Miller & Chapman, 1981;
6 Miller & Leadholm, 1992, Rice, Redmond & Hoffman, 2006). Its reliability has often been
7 questioned due to its variability within age-groups (Klee & Fitzgerald, 1985). However, MLU has
8 been shown to be highly reliable for children younger than four years (Rondal, Ghiotto, Bredart &
9 Bachelet, 1987), a period in which it is highly correlated with age and with the development of
10 morphological and syntactic skills (Blake, Quartaro, & Onorati 1993; Miller & Chapman, 1981;
11 Rollins, Snow, & Villett, 1996; Rondal et al., 1987; Scarborough, Rescorla, Tager-Flusberg,
12 Fowler, & Sudhalter, 1991). MLU has also been shown to be sensitive to pragmatic influences, such
13 as differences in situation and discourse context (Bornstein, Painter & Park, 2002; Johnston, 2001).
14 This suggests that MLU is reliable when the context of language production is strictly controlled in
15 children up to the age of four. The data from the present study comply with the restrictions
16 necessary to make MLU reliable. Participants were between two and four years old, and data were
17 obtained using the same contextual situation for all children.

18
19 The second relevant methodological issue has to do with the identification of lexical,
20 grammatical and pragmatic word types in the corpus. These three major word classes are generally
21 accepted both in linguistic and in developmental studies. Grammatical and lexical word types are
22 the basic building blocks of linguistic referential units (e.g., noun phrases, simple and complex
23 sentences, etc.), with lexical words providing the basic content (e.g., dog, table, run, etc.), and
24 grammatical words providing more abstract information (e.g., aspect, tense) and the formal
25 architecture of the sentences (e.g., case markers). Pragmatic words are relatively independent of the
26 basic syntactic system. They are used to guide the talker in the interpretation of the intended

1 meaning of the utterances and they can occur either as free-standing words (e.g., interjections) or in
2 combination with relatively large linguistic units (e.g., discourse markers; Schiffrin, 1987). Note
3 also that the distinction between these three word classes is not straightforward, as several words
4 can be classified in more than one group, e.g., many grammatical words can be used as discourse
5 markers such as *alors* (so). Furthermore there are important differences within classes, e.g., verbs
6 versus nouns. However, it was assumed that this classification would provide an adequate starting
7 point for the present study (see the full list in the Appendix). As noted above, annotation of word-
8 class information was made by means of an automatic computer-based part-of-speech tagger
9 (Parisse & Le Normand, 2000b). This automatic analysis is rooted in a distributional principle. This
10 means that the category of a word depends purely on the structure of the language produced –and
11 especially on lexical information and word context– but not on the meaning of the language
12 produced. Note that this type of analysis resembles to a certain extent the type of knowledge that
13 children have been shown to use in order to make early analyses of oral input (e.g., Shi &
14 Melançon, 2010). Note also that the linguistic annotations used in the corpus, which are commonly
15 used to describe adult language, are not meant to imply that the speaker (i.e., the child) uses this
16 type of syntax (see below Method section).

17

18 A secondary aim of this study was to examine whether the emergence of grammar was
19 influenced by age and socioeconomic status (SES) of the family. As regards age, one crucial
20 question was to determine whether MLU predictability remains stable as children’s language
21 becomes more complex. Two types of variation might be observed: first, different categories might
22 predict MLU at different times (e.g., lexicon initially, and grammar later on); second, the same
23 categories might predict MLU (e.g., grammar), even if global predictability decreases with time
24 (due to more complex language being less predictable). The first type of change would be
25 compatible with the *late-grammar* hypothesis, as according to this approach lexicon should predict
26 increases in MLU, but after some time grammar might take their place. The second possibility

1 would be compatible with the *early-grammar* hypothesis. As regards SES, it is well known that this
2 determines the rate of development (Vasilyeva, 2008). However, we may ask if apart from rate of
3 development, there are more qualitative differences among children from different SES groups. If
4 language development is viewed as an input-driven construction, then one might expect similar
5 processes to occur in all children. On the contrary, if language is more dependent on maturation,
6 then differences in SES might have other consequences in language development.

7
8 Finally, we aimed to explore whether there is a subset of grammatical categories (e.g.,
9 determiners, prepositions, pronouns) that are more closely associated with increases in language
10 complexity. This question is relevant because, as noted above, the list of grammatical words
11 includes various subcategories which are linguistically and cognitively different, and which are also
12 acquired in different time periods. For instance, determiners are acquired earlier than conjunctions
13 (Demuth, 1996, 2006), the latter being linguistically more complex; determiners are also acquired
14 earlier than time or space prepositions, which are conceptually more elaborate (Hickman & Robert,
15 2006). Thus, by exploring this issue we expected to gain a better understanding of the processes
16 underlying the emergence of grammar.

17
18 Three questions are addressed in this study:

- 19
20 1) **Is there a relationship between MLU and the three major categories (lexical,**
21 **pragmatic and grammatical word types)?** In accordance with perception studies
22 providing evidence that children develop sensitivity to grammatical information before
23 the age of two, it is hypothesized that an increase in the number of grammatical word
24 types should be the best predictor of MLU.

25

1 Garman, 1976; Tyack & Gottsleben, 1977). We adopted the second approach, with a 20-minute
2 sample-time. This corpus, comprising 104 hours of free interactions, was considered a
3 representative sample of French-speaking children of the relevant age group within each SES level.
4

5 Procedure

6 Each child participated in a dyadic interaction with a familiar adult partner (parent or nursery
7 teacher) either in the child's home, nursery or school. The child and adult were seated at a small
8 table, and the same standardized set of 22 Fisher-Price toys was used with all children: one house
9 with five family members, one dog, four beds, four chairs, two armchairs, two tables, one rocking
10 horse, one stroller, two cars and one staircase. In this conversational context, the children could be
11 expected to engage in talking and sharing experiences (Le Normand, 1986; Le Normand et al.,
12 2008).
13

14 Transcription and analysis of recorded language samples

15 Two trained assistants transcribed the recorded language samples following the transcription and
16 segmentation conventions for spoken French (Rondal et al., 1985; Le Normand, 1986), allowing for
17 the computation of linguistic production as described in the corpus processing system CLAN (Child
18 Language ANalysis; Mac Whinney, 2000). The entire corpus of the children's productions was
19 fully tagged by POS-T, a fully automatic parser developed by Parris and Le Normand (2000b).
20 The parser is freely available as part of the CLAN program, which can be found on the CHILDES
21 website (<http://chilides.psy.cmu.edu/morgrams/>).

22 The system has two main components: the MOR analyzer and the POS-T disambiguator. The MOR
23 system automatically creates, for all the words in a transcript, the set of all possible categories for
24 the words. For example, in English, MOR provides two morphological forms, for the word 'play':
25 'v|play' (v stands for verb, e.g. 'I play') and 'n|play' (n stands for noun, e.g. 'the play'). The
26 function of the POS-T tool is to take into account the context and automatically provide the most

1 suitable category for this context. Some analysis errors remain and manual checking is necessary in
2 some cases. However, depending on the syntactic complexity of the language to be processed, the
3 error rate, which is in principle about 4%, may be as low as 1%. For French, the set of syntactic
4 categories implemented in MOR and POS-T is large. As noted above, this automatic analysis is
5 rooted in a distributional approach, with categorization being dependent on context and not on the
6 meaning of the language produced. All the syntactic categories used in the current analysis
7 correspond to oral adult language categories. This means that the result of the analysis is described
8 on the basis of ADULT knowledge, but it does NOT mean that the child under study has knowledge
9 of this type of syntax. On the contrary, this provides a reference that allows comparison between
10 children with different levels of grammatical knowledge. Tagging quality was checked by hand, as
11 the corpus is intended to become a reference for future syntactic analyses of children's French
12 language corpora. The effective tagging quality of the present corpus after checking by hand
13 averages 97%. Word types were calculated as the number of different word forms. For instance, in
14 this utterance: "*oh le bébé, maman veut le promener dans le jardin!*" (English: "oh the baby,
15 mummy wants to take him to the garden!") There are nine word types:

- 16 - One pragmatic type: *oh*|co;
- 17 - Five lexical types: *bébé*|n, *maman*|n:prop, *veut*|v, *promener*|vinf, *jardin*|n;
- 18 - Three grammatical types: *le*|det, *le*|pro:obj, *dans*|prep.

19 Note that the French word "*le*" occurs three times, which correspond to two different word types.
20 So, in this example, the frequency of word type *le*|det is two and the frequency of word type
21 *le*|pro:obj is one .

22 This study calculated MLU in words. Previous studies have calculated MLU in words (MLU_w) or
23 in morphemes (MLU_m). While it is often assumed that MLU_m is more reliable than MLU_w, it has
24 been observed that there is a very high correlation between the two measures both in English (.998,
25 Parker & Brorson, 2005) and in French (.990, Parris & Le Normand, 2006).

26 **Statistical Analysis**

1 Correlations and hierarchical linear regression analyses were performed using the SAS 9.1 software
2 (CORR, REG, and GLM procedures). In all regressions, MLU was the dependent variable; the
3 number of lexical, pragmatic and grammatical word types, age, and SES, were the independent
4 variables. The distribution of the 312 samples included two SES levels (Low: 141 samples High:
5 171 samples), and three age-groups (24-30 months: 105 samples; 33-39 months: 110 samples; 42-
6 48 months: 97 samples).

7 RESULTS

8 **Predicting MLU from Lexical, Pragmatic, and Grammatical word types**

9 Before testing the predictive value of the three major language categories, we conducted a series of
10 correlational analyses. Figures 1a. b. c. show that lexical, pragmatic and grammatical word types
11 were positively correlated with MLU ($r = .76, .59, \text{ and } .86$ respectively, $p < .001$). When two word
12 types were entered as predictors, lexical and grammatical word types remained significant. By
13 contrast, when lexical word types were partialled out, the effect of pragmatic word types was
14 marginal ($p = .07$). Finally, when the three word types were entered in the regression, grammatical
15 word types remained strongly significant (the greater the number of different grammatical words,
16 the higher the MLU), lexical word types were not significant, and pragmatic word types had a
17 significant negative coefficient. This indicates that when grammatical word types were taken into
18 account, lexical word types were independent of MLU and that the children using more pragmatic
19 word types had the lowest MLU scores.

20 (Insert Figure 1a b c and Table 1 here)

21 One potential limitation of this regression analysis is circularity: as the dependent variable (MLU)
22 and the independent variables (word types) were obtained from the same corpus, they might be
23 mathematically related, which would result in a circularity effect. To ensure the independence
24 between MLU and the three categories (lexical, pragmatic and grammatical word types), we first
25 split the corpus into two halves and used one half to compute MLU and the other half to compute
26 word types. We performed the same regression analysis on both subcorpora. The pattern of results

1 in the whole corpus and in the split analysis was similar for lexical and grammatical word types
2 (i.e., lexical word types were non significant, and grammatical word types strongly significant). In
3 the case of pragmatic words, the pattern of results in the whole corpus was also similar to those of
4 split 2 (i.e., the coefficients were negative and significantly different from 0, $p < .001$) but not to
5 those of split 1 (i.e., the coefficient was also negative, but it was not significantly different from 0, p
6 $= .12$). These results confirmed that MLU was not mathematically related to lexical and grammatical
7 word types. At the same time, the split-half analysis indicated that the observed association of
8 pragmatic words with MLU is less reliable than the association of lexical and grammatical words
9 with MLU.

10 (Insert Table 2 here)

11 Secondly, we carried out a Monte-Carlo analysis, generating 10000 random speech samples from
12 normal distributions (with the observed mean and SD) for MLU, and lexical, pragmatic and
13 grammatical word types. Then, we performed a multiple regression on this random corpus. The
14 results of this regression were quite different from those observed in the actual sample: the
15 coefficient of lexical word types was significant and the coefficients of grammatical and pragmatic
16 word types were non significant. Such results argue against a “circularity” problem and spurious
17 results.

18

19 **Predicting MLU from Age, SES, Lexical, Pragmatic, and Grammatical word types**

20 In order to understand the contribution made by age and SES in predicting MLU, we first examined
21 the correlations between all independent variables: the three major categories were positively
22 correlated with age ($r = .57, .44, \text{ and } .67$ respectively, $p < .001$), and negatively correlated with SES
23 ($r = -.37, -.30, \text{ and } -.35$ respectively, $p < .001$ in all three cases). The three major categories were
24 strongly intercorrelated (lexical-pragmatic: $r = .82$, lexical-grammatical: $r = .92$, pragmatic-
25 grammatical: $r = .80$, $p < .001$), and these correlations remained high when age and SES were
26 partialled out ($r = .74, .85, \text{ and } .73$, respectively, $p < .001$).

1 Univariate regression analysis (Table 3) showed that all five predictors were associated with
2 significant changes: lexical, pragmatic and grammatical word types accounted for 58%, 35% and
3 75% of the variance in MLU respectively ($p < .001$ in the three cases). Age and SES accounted for
4 52% and 13% of the variance in MLU respectively ($p < .001$ in both cases). Multivariate regression
5 analysis (Table 4) showed that when age and SES factors were entered first as predictors, these two
6 variables accounted for 63% of the variance in MLU, $p < .001$ (step1). Their effect remained
7 significant when lexical, pragmatic and grammatical word types were entered as predictors. The
8 regression accounted for 82% of the variance in MLU, with all independent variables significant (p
9 $< .0001$) except for lexical word types (step2), which further confirms the result of previous
10 analyses with the three linguistic categories. Finally, when interactions between age, SES and word
11 types were entered, the regression accounted for 75% of the variance in MLU with lexical word
12 types; 68% with pragmatic word types; and 80% with grammatical word types (all $p < .001$). All
13 interactions between age and word types were significant, but interactions between SES and word
14 types were not significant. This indicates that the correlations between MLU and word types vary
15 across age groups, but not across SES groups (step3).

16 (Insert Tables 3 and 4 here)

17 **Predicting MLU from Lexical, Pragmatic, and Grammatical Word Types by Age groups**

18 Because the interactions between age and the three major linguistic categories were significant, we
19 performed another set of analyses across the three age groups. An ANOVA of SES, age on MLU
20 showed that MLU increased with age ($F(1, 310) = 202.6, p < .001$) and was lower in children from
21 low SES than in children from high SES ($F(1, 310) = 90.7, p < .001$) (see Figure 2). There were no
22 statistically significant interactions between age and SES ($F(2, 306) = .96, p = .38$). Subsequently,
23 we performed regression analyses for the three age groups (see Table 5). The differences were
24 found to be significant for grammatical word types and non significant for lexical word types in the
25 three age groups. As expected, there was a negative and significant coefficient in the youngest and
26 the oldest group for pragmatic words, but this was marginally significant ($p < .06$) in the intermediate

1 age group (i.e., 33-39 months of age). Word types accounted for 80% of the variance in MLU for
2 children aged 24-30 months, 57% for children aged 33-39 months and 49% for children aged 42-48
3 months.

4 (Insert Figure 2 and Table 5 here)

5 **Predicting MLU from Grammatical Categories**

6 Because grammatical word types were the best predictors of MLU, we performed a correlational
7 analysis of the 18 grammatical categories with MLU. As shown in Figures 3a, b, c the highest
8 correlations were observed for subject personal pronouns ($r = .81$), prepositions ($r = .79$), and
9 determiners ($r = .75$). These correlations showed that personal pronouns accounted for 66% of the
10 variance in MLU, prepositions for 62%, and determiners for 56%. Multivariate regression analysis
11 showed that the above three grammatical word types accounted for 73% of variance in MLU with
12 all three coefficients positive and significantly different from 0 ($p < .0001$).

13 (Insert Figures 3 a.b.c. and Tables 6 and 7 here)

15 **DISCUSSION**

16 The main aim of this study was to explore how children build early multiword utterances and
17 acquire grammar. Two alternative proposals have been explored, referred to in this study as the
18 *late-* and *early- grammar* hypotheses respectively. According to the first hypothesis (i.e., *late-*
19 *grammar*), early multiword utterances are organized around lexical items. According to the second
20 hypothesis (i.e., *early-grammar*), by the time children begin to produce multiword utterances, they
21 have some rudimentary knowledge of grammar, enabling them to transfer the formal grammatical
22 features of known predicates to the new verbs they learn. In order to evaluate these two hypotheses,
23 we analyzed a large annotated corpus of French children aged two to four. Specifically, we
24 examined whether increases in language complexity (as measured by MLU) could be predicted on
25 the basis of lexical, pragmatic and grammatical diversity (word types). We postulated that if, as
26 proposed by Tomasello (2000), early multiword utterances are lexically driven, then increases in

1 lexical diversity should predict increases in MLU. On the contrary, if, as proposed by Ninio (2006),
2 early multiword utterances are organized grammatically, increases in the number of grammatical
3 word types should predict increases in MLU. In order to arrive at a better understanding of the
4 processes underlying early language development, two further questions were examined. First, we
5 analyzed whether age and Socio-Economic Status (SES) influenced results. Second, we inquired
6 whether there was a subset of grammatical categories that is more strongly associated with MLU
7 increases.

8 **Lexical, Pragmatic and Grammatical Word Types and MLU**

9 One important finding in this corpus study is the different patterns of association derived from
10 simple regressions and multiple regressions. On simple regressions, the correlations of lexical,
11 pragmatic and grammatical word types with MLU are .76, .59, .86 respectively. When the three
12 major categories are submitted to a multiple regression analysis, the pattern of results is very
13 different: the number of grammatical word types shows a positive correlation with MLU, the
14 number of pragmatic word types shows a negative correlation, and the number of lexical word types
15 shows no effect on MLU. Thus, even if language development involves a series of changes that
16 affect all aspects of the language system, it is grammatical word types that have the most significant
17 effect on MLU growth. The children's inventory of 18 grammatical types accounts for 75% of the
18 variance in MLU. This result confirms our hypothesis that grammatical types are the best predictor
19 of MLU and leads to the conclusion that children use grammar productively from a very early age.

20 The number of lexical types correlated with MLU, which is in accordance with previous studies
21 (Devescovi, Caselli, Marchione, Pasqualetti, Reilly & Bates, 2005). However, it was not a predictor
22 of MLU when grammatical and pragmatic types were taken into account. This suggests that in this
23 period, an increase in lexical diversity does not have a direct impact on language development as
24 measured by MLU. Thus, this result is not in agreement with the *late-grammar* hypothesis, nor with
25 the Verb Island hypothesis, according to which children's early multiword utterances are organized

1 around specific predicates. It could be thought however that the association between lexicon and
2 global complexity might still be relevant. It is quite possible that children aged between two and
3 four develop other features of the lexicon, not captured by our part-of speech-tagger (e.g., elaborate
4 lexical representations such as those described by Pustejovsky, Bergler & Anick, 1993).

5 The negative coefficient of pragmatic word types to MLU suggests that these word types occur
6 mostly in short utterances. This is not surprising: pragmatic words are fixed forms and therefore are
7 not constrained by any morpho-syntactic markings. This makes these expressions easy to use by
8 less advanced children. Furthermore, producing a variety of pragmatic words may be due to an
9 inability to use other language resources (i.e., grammar). As children begin to use more
10 grammatical types, the need to use pragmatic words decreases, which, together with the fact that
11 these expressions can lead to very short utterances, explains the impact on MLU. We know that
12 pragmatic knowledge plays a role in early language acquisition as Veneziano, (1999; 2001); Clark
13 and Amaral, (2010); Herr-Israel and McCune, (2011) pointed out, but this was partially captured by
14 our distributional part-of speech-tagger.

15 In order to ensure that these results are reliable, Monte-Carlo and split-half analyses were
16 performed. Monte-Carlo analysis showed that the associations between MLU and word types
17 calculated from a random corpus were different from those obtained from the actual corpus, which
18 argues against circularity. The split-half analysis confirmed the reliability of the associations of
19 MLU with lexical and grammatical word types, but not with pragmatic words. The low reliability of
20 the association between pragmatic words and MLU might be attributable to the context-sensitive
21 nature of pragmatic words, which make them distributionally less predictable than lexical and
22 grammatical words. Furthermore, as noted above, pragmatic words include two very different
23 subtypes. On the one hand, there is a large number of pragmatic words which tend to occur as free-
24 standing words. (e.g., interjections, onomatopoeias). On the other hand, many pragmatic words and
25 expressions can be used to organize linguistic units at the narrative level (e.g., discourse markers,

1 Schiffrin, 1987), for which they should be associated with high MLU. As our annotation system did
2 not explicitly separate these two different subtypes, it was not possible to examine the role of
3 different pragmatic categories independently, as we did in the case of grammatical words. However,
4 some pragmatic words such as là (*there*), voilà (*here is*), encore (*more*), are amongst the most
5 frequent ones in our corpus (see Appendix). In sum, the heterogeneous nature of pragmatic words
6 may explain why their association with MLU was not fully reliable. Future studies using a finer-
7 grained annotation system for pragmatic words should explore to what extent children use
8 pragmatic words to build long multiword utterances.

9 **Age, SES, major linguistic categories and MLU**

10 Another important finding in this corpus study is that while both age and SES contribute
11 significantly to MLU, their relationship to the three linguistic categories is qualitatively different.
12 The contribution of age and SES to MLU was confirmed both in univariate and in multivariate
13 analyses. And their effect remained significant when lexical, pragmatic and grammatical word types
14 were entered as predictors. However, results for age and SES factors were clearly different in terms
15 of the interactions with word types.

16
17 As regards SES, there was no significant interaction between SES and linguistic categories. This
18 means that the relationships between linguistic categories and MLU are not influenced significantly
19 by SES level. In other words, input is crucial because it accelerates or decelerates developmental
20 processes, but the processes themselves remain the same. This result is important because it
21 confirms that even if grammar is the best predictor of MLU, this does not mean that some innate
22 processes are taking place but rather that language development is input-driven.

23 As regards age, the interaction with linguistic categories was significant, which shows that the
24 correlations between MLU and word types vary across age groups. Multiple regression analyses
25 across the three age groups provided further details about these differences: (i) the relationships

1 between word types and MLU for the three groups were almost similar to those observed in the full
2 corpus; the only exception was pragmatic word types, in which the association was marginally
3 significant in the 33-39 months group; (ii) The percentage of variance of linguistic categories
4 decreased across age groups (from 80% to 49%). In other words, the association between MLU and
5 the grammatical categories is the strongest in the youngest group. These results confirm our
6 prediction that grammatical words are the best predictor of MLU even in the youngest children,
7 which provides further support for the *early-grammar* hypothesis.

8 **Grammatical categories and MLU for French**

9 Three grammatical types (subject-pronoun, determiners and prepositions) were the best predictors
10 of MLU for French and were almost sufficient to determine initial grammatical development. This
11 confirmed our hypothesis that some grammatical word classes are more strongly associated with
12 MLU. These results are in agreement with our previous studies (Le Normand, Parisse & Dellatolas,
13 2010) showing that third person singular pronouns "*il/elle/on*" (he/she/impersonal pronoun) and
14 first person singular "*je*" (I) were the best predictors of MLU: third person singular was used by
15 100% of children at age two and nine months and "*je*" (English: I) was used by 97% of children at
16 age three and nine months. At age two, 55% of children having an average MLU of 1.3 omitted all
17 personal pronouns whereas 45% of children of the same age having an average MLU of 1.7 started
18 to produce subject pronouns. This suggests that children gradually start using these grammatical
19 categories from very early on.

20 It could be argued why this should be the case for these three categories, and not for the remaining
21 15 grammatical categories. According to Valian et al. (2009), given that these function words are
22 very abstract, children should learn them very late, for which the only explanation is that
23 grammatical development is guided by innate grammatical representations. It may be, however, that
24 some features of these words make them easier to learn. Three features of these grammatical words
25 support this possibility. First, all determiners, and at least some subject pronouns (e.g., *je*, (I) *tu*

1 (you) are clitic words. Clitics are function words, which are prosodically constrained (i.e., they must
2 be produced in the context of a lexical word), with a highly predictable distribution. Similarly, some
3 prepositions (e.g., *de*, (from) *à*, (to) etc.) are most frequently used as formal case markers that
4 identify predicate-argument relationships (e.g., *Il est allé de la maison à l'école*, He went from
5 home to school) in which they are also highly constrained and predictable. Second, determiners,
6 prepositions and subject pronouns are among the most frequent words in adult French, which is
7 highly relevant from a language learning perspective. Finally, these function words, and particularly
8 determiners and personal pronouns, do not convey any conceptually complex content. Thus, if one
9 supports Naigles' claim, (2002) that "form is easy" but "meaning is hard", it is not surprising that
10 children learn function words more easily.

11 **How do children acquire early grammar?**

12 The traditional debate between constructivist and innatist approaches to language acquisition has
13 been transformed more recently into a debate between *late- versus early-grammar* or into lexically-
14 versus grammatically-driven language development. The results of this study provide strong
15 support for the latter hypothesis, and offer some clues as to the processes that might underlie the
16 emergence of grammar. To summarize, three main results of our study have provided support for
17 the *early-grammar* hypothesis: (i) grammatical diversity is the best predictor of general language
18 complexity between two and four years of age, in contrast to lexical diversity; (ii) SES level may
19 accelerate language development but the process remains the same; and (iii) more frequent and
20 prosodically constrained word types are the best predictors of language development in French.

21 It could be argued that one should not infer from the fact that children produce grammatical words
22 that they already have some grammatical knowledge. However, several sources of evidence
23 contradict such an interpretation of our data. First, the results are compatible with data from
24 perception studies showing that younger children use function words to process auditory input.
25 Importantly, in general terms the same word types appear in perception studies and in this study,

1 supporting the idea that children do have surface knowledge of function words from very early on.
2 Second, the contrast between a highly predictable MLU in less advanced children, and a less
3 predictable MLU in more advanced children suggests that what all children have in common is a
4 core language which is characterized precisely by the systematic use of basic grammatical words,
5 which suggests that these words must be easily learned. Finally, and contrary to what has often been
6 observed in the early language of several atypical populations (e.g., deaf or SLI children), the
7 children in this study very rarely made grammatical errors (except for omissions), which further
8 supports the proposal that children use grammar productively from very early on. Thus, we may
9 conclude that these results reflect actual knowledge of grammar rather than an apparent statistical
10 effect.

11 The evidence that children use grammar in early language has been interpreted in two different
12 ways until now. For some researchers (Conwell & Demuth, 2007; Valian et al., 2009) it confirms
13 that children are born with innate grammatical categories. For others (Ninio, 2006, 2011) this
14 merely confirms the fact that children make use of formal grammatical relationships (while at the
15 conceptual level they may only know the specific items). Thus, for one view, two-year-old children
16 have full knowledge of the abstract grammatical categories, while for the second, children may only
17 have surface knowledge of grammatical organization. One of the problems of the abstract category
18 interpretation is that it is based on distributional information (e.g., determiner-noun overlapping in
19 Valian et al.'s 2009 study). That is to say, evidence of any abstract categories is very indirect. It
20 seems more adequate to make a less speculative interpretation of the data.

21 Such an interpretation of our results is compatible with the view of grammatical development as a
22 long and slow process in which both social experience and cognitive skills are basic pillars. An
23 important part of that process is distributional learning. As noted above, some of the basic features
24 of a number of grammatical words (frequency, distributional restrictions, and formal nature) explain
25 why they are easier to learn. At the same time, there is an interesting overlap between these words

1 and the ones children use to process early speech, which most probably may facilitate learning even
2 more. Once children have these basic formal structures they can use them to make more elaborate
3 form-meaning mapping. For example, the personal pronoun data show that children need some time
4 to acquire this set of grammatical items, and that acquisition is an ongoing process which takes
5 place gradually as shown in this study (see Figure 3a). Initially, personal pronouns occur as fillers,
6 which means that children know the position of these particles despite having no or very limited
7 grammatical knowledge. Later on, the paradigm of different personal pronouns emerges. This
8 gradual progression in grammatical development is compatible with the fact that other general skills
9 might have to be acquired before the full set of personal pronouns can be used. For instance, a basic
10 contrast between *je/il* (English: I/he) may be recognized by merely establishing a contrast between
11 self/others, a skill which children younger than two-year-old can clearly make. However, the subtle
12 distinctions associated to the full set of personal pronouns (e.g., anaphoric reference, polite forms,
13 etc.) are beyond the maturity of two-year-old children. A similar argument might be applied in the
14 case of determiners or prepositions, the other two categories that are highly predictive. Considering
15 that grammar is the formalization of a huge variety of abstract concepts (place, movement,
16 anaphora, deixis, etc.), which the child acquires in interaction with others, a consequence of this is
17 that grammar is acquired gradually.

18 In sum, in order to build the cognitive architecture of language, children start by using the formal
19 distributional features of language from very early on in language production. More specifically,
20 they use the most basic grammatical words, which happen to be the easiest to learn and are
21 sufficient to encode basic grammatical relationships. Then, on the basis of these formal structures
22 and various other cognitive skills, children can learn to encode increasingly complex form-meaning
23 relationships until they arrive at adult language learning. Being input driven and based on social
24 interaction, the rate of the process depends on the actual social context. However, in very broad
25 terms the process of building the cognitive architecture of language is identical in all children (i.e.,
26 form precedes meaning), for which social context differences have no qualitative effect. Finally, the

1 specific stones that children use to build the cognitive architecture of language should depend on
2 the particular language they are learning.

3 Our results show the value of using a large corpus to answer theoretical questions in developmental
4 studies. This cross-sectional approach cannot provide a full description of language acquisition, and
5 especially of qualitative information that is not annotated (e.g., complex lexical representations).
6 However, it is particularly suitable to explore the use that children make of distributional
7 regularities. At the same time, it shows the importance of annotation tools. It seems evident that the
8 specific results obtained in this study reflect the annotations used. The comparison of results
9 obtained with different annotation criteria might provide interesting information regarding
10 grammatical development. For that, we need not only large databases, but also efficient and
11 dynamic coding systems.

12 **Conclusion**

13 This study used a part-of-speech-tagged corpus as a model of young children's language. Using
14 hierarchical regression analyses, we have explored the relation of MLU to lexical, pragmatic and
15 grammatical diversity (number of word types), and shown that MLU growth in French depends
16 primarily on the number of grammatical word types and secondarily on the number of pragmatic
17 word types. The results confirm the value of our methodological approach and suggest several
18 directions for future research. First, it seems highly relevant to explore whether the same
19 correlations observed in this study hold across atypical populations (e.g., SLI, Cochlear Implant,
20 etc.). By exploring such correlations we might determine whether these atypical children can make
21 use of distributional regularities or whether they use alternative routes to build complex utterances.
22 Second, future studies should explore whether the general pattern observed for French is also
23 present in children from other linguistic backgrounds. Comparison of these results across languages
24 would help to generalize our findings as a language-independent phenomenon. Finally, future

1 studies should explore the role of pragmatic word types, and particularly of discourse markers, to
2 build long utterances.

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