

Core Number Representations Are Shaped by Language.

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2 **Abstract**
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7 **Language and math have been predominantly related through verbally learned**
8 **arithmetic facts. The fundamental question arises of whether early learning of math in a**
9 **linguistic context shapes very basic quantity processing. The particular characteristics**
10 **of Basque-Spanish bilingualism allows the study of possible cultural cues in the innate**
11 **“number sense”. The present study shows that the management of quantity during**
12 **comparison of Arabic digits is defined by the subjects’ number wording system. Event**
13 **Related Potentials (ERPs) revealed that the N1-P2 distance effect in highly proficient**
14 **Basque-Spanish bilinguals was critically dependent on the language in which the**
15 **participants had learned math (LL^{math}). It is generally accepted that without the request**
16 **for a verbal response, the number comparison process operates independently from**
17 **language and that distance effects (i.e., differences in processing between close and**
18 **distant magnitudes) index access to the analogue quantity code. Our data suggest that**
19 **quantity representations are permeable to the number naming system. These findings**
20 **also underscore the importance of early learning and suggest that LL^{math} is the optimal**
21 **medium for numerical communication.**
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46 **Keywords: bilingualism, math cognition, quantity code, distance effect, ERPs.**
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1. Introduction.

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2 Bilingual brokers in stock exchange markets perform rapid calculations while they
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4 communicate in the main language of the market. However, even if they master both
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6 languages, those calculations may involve different processes, depending on the language
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8 required. We propose that the numeric system should optimally flow in the language in which
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10 math was learned (herein, LL^{math}). The present study addresses idiosyncrasies of math in
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12 bilinguals and questions such issues as magnitude code permeability to non-numeric
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14 information and the nature of numerical representations. Such a link between math and
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16 language also has educational implications wherein a variation in the linguistic code could
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18 have consequences in knowledge representation within other systems, such as math (Gentner
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20 and Goldin-Meadow, 2003; Malt and Wolff, 2010). In turn, these questions refer to the study
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22 of possible cultural cues in the quantity code.
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29 There are different views regarding a possible linguistic prelude to the development
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31 of numerical representations (Butterworth et al., 2008; Dehaene et al., 1999; Gordon, 2004;
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33 Pica et al., 2004). The very restricted number-words in Brazilian Amazonian tribes have an
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35 impact on exact, but not approximate, calculations (Gordon, 2004; Pica et al., 2004).
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37 Additionally, language and numerical cognition appear to become linked in children before
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39 the initiation of formal education when they start to master counting (Gelman and Gallister,
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41 1978; Wynn, 1990).
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47 Aside from questions about the Whorfian linguistic relativity principle, which states
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49 that speakers from different languages think differently (Whorf, 1940, 1956), knowing
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51 whether bilinguals process math differentially as a function of their languages can provide
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53 fruitful information on math and language dependencies. Evidence that numerical
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55 representations and processes depend on native language (L1) remains mixed, and usually,
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57 studies target the distinction between approximate and exact calculations, which restricts
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1 language dependence, if any exists, to exact calculations (Frenck-Mestre and Vaid, 1993;
2 Dehaene et al., 1999; Spelke and Tsivkin 2001; Bernardo, 2001; Campbell and Epp, 2004;
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4 Rusconi et al., 2007; Salillas and Wicha, 2012). Exact arithmetic can be related to language
5 because arithmetic facts are learned and ultimately retrieved verbally. Therefore, research on
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7 math in bilinguals has targeted the possible L1 predominance in the memorization and
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9 retrieval of arithmetic facts, has explicitly varied the linguistic code with L1/L2 input as a
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11 variable, and has used behavioral methods (Frenck-Mestre and Vaid, 1993; Spelke and
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13 Tsivkin 2001; Bernardo, 2001; Campbell and Epp, 2004; Rusconi et al., 2007), neuroimaging
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15 (Dehaene et al., 1999; Venkatraman et al., 2006; Grabner et al., 2002) and event-related
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17 potential (ERP) methods (Salillas and Wicha, 2012). The current view is that after
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19 experimental training in novel exact arithmetic facts, those facts remain linked to the
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21 language used during training (Spelke and Tsivkin, 2001), and this process is subserved by
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23 left-lateralized linguistic-related areas (Venkatraman et al., 2006). These results indicate that
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25 exact arithmetic depends on language; however, approximate arithmetic would operate
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27 independently from the language of training. Without the use of explicit training, another
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29 group of studies have addressed bilingual math processing through the observation of actual
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31 L1 vs. L2 performance in math. These experiments tested participants whose L1 was also the
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33 language in which the participants learned math. Better arithmetic fact representations in L1
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35 were found (Frenck-Mestre and Vaid, 1993; Campbell and Epp, 2004 or Rusconi et al.,
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37 2007).

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Only two studies to date (Bernardo et al., 2001; Salillas and Wicha, 2012) have addressed the effects of early and sustained learning on life-long arithmetic representations. Using the time fine-grained ERP technique, Salillas and Wicha (2012) dissected the electrical brain response (i.e., underlying processes) to arithmetic fact solutions presented in what was called “Language of Learning Arithmetic (L+) vs. the other language (L-)”. Spreading of

1 activation between multiplication problems and their solutions showed a very different ERP
2 pattern depending on whether they were presented in L+ or L-. The study concluded that
3 arithmetic memory networks depend on early learning (i.e., L+). The present study aimed to
4 investigate whether the most basic numerical representation (i.e. the quantity code) has also
5 traces of language inherited from early learning. This innate code is proposed to be abstract,
6 and its penetrability to symbols is the topic of current advances in math cognition (Dehaene,
7 2009; Nieder and Dehaene, 2009). We addressed this issue by studying whether numerical
8 words (number linguistic symbols) could have left a trace on the quantity code.
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19 Bilingualism and multilingualism increase the mapping between number words and
20 magnitude representations, opening the questions of which of those linguistic codes connect
21 to *core* math functioning, when that code predominance is settled, and how long that
22 predominance lasts. Given the concurrent exposure to quantity in a particular language during
23 early learning, number representations could have been shaped by language. A core
24 magnitude representation evolves into a spatial mental image, which demonstrates
25 malleability associated with individual and cultural differences (Seron et al., 1992; Dehaene
26 et al., 1993). This representation appears after number words or Arabic symbols are
27 memorized and then used for counting. Therefore, permeability to language in the magnitude
28 code is possible. However, linguistic prints in the quantity code are not contemplated by the
29 existing theoretical approaches, although the connection between symbol and quantity are
30 increasingly studied (Butterworth, 2010; Piazza, 2010) and included as an explanation for
31 math disorders (Iuculano et al., 2008; Butterworth, 2010). Thus a broader concept, such as
32 the language of learning math (LL^{math}), rather than just the language of learning arithmetic,
33 could be crucial in different aspects of math functioning and applicable beyond simple
34 arithmetic fact retrieval.
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1 For this study, we used Arabic digit comparison: a task considered to tap into
2 magnitude processing and independent from language (e.g. Dehaene and Cohen, 1995, see
3 also Dehaene et al., 2003). The effects of LL^{math} on number semantics were measured using
4 the well documented *distance effect* (Moyer and Landauer, 1967) as a dependent measure of
5 access to semantics. The distance effect, by which close numbers are more difficult to
6 compare than distant numbers, indexes quantity manipulation and has been widely studied
7 using behavioral methods (e.g., Moyer and Landauer, 1967; Dehaene et al., 1990),
8 computationally modeling (e.g. Verguts and Fias, 2004; Verguts et al., 2005; van Opstal et al.,
9 2008) and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). The distance effect can also be
10 captured using ERPs (Libertus et al., 2007; Paulsen and Neville, 2008; Cao et al., 2010; Chao
11 et al., 2011). This effect has been proposed to have a brain locus in the intraparietal sulcus
12 (IPS) (see metanalysis by Dehaene et al., 2003), which is an area where basic quantity
13 processing takes place. Previous studies have shown distance effects on N1 to P2 transition
14 and P2p amplitudes during numerical comparison (Dehaene, 1996; Temple and Posner, 1998;
15 Libertus et al., 2007; Cao et al., 2010). Since the first ERP study on the distance effect
16 (Dehaene, 1996), close and far distances have been reported to differ at approximately 200
17 msec post-stimulus in comparison tasks. Temple and Posner (1998) found that modulations in
18 the complex N1-P2p are similar between 5-year-old children and adults but differ between
19 symbolic and non-symbolic stimuli.

20 A major focus of study has been on possible differences in the P2p distance effect,
21 depending on the format in which numerosities are presented. The goal was to establish
22 whether the quantity representation is abstract or non-abstract (e.g., Cohen Kadosh et al.,
23 2007; Cohen Kadosh et al., 2010; Cohen Kadosh et al., 2011). Libertus et al. (2007) found no
24 differences in the N1 to P2p transition (180-210 msec) and P2p (210-250 msec) distance
25 effect between symbolic and non-symbolic formats when visual variables were controlled.

1 The authors relate these effects with the access to quantity. While N1 effects were more
2 related to sensory aspects of the stimuli, the data specifically suggest that numerical semantic
3 processing is indexed by a notation-independent neural process: the electrophysiological
4 numerical distance effect that starts approximately 180 msec after stimulus onset and is
5 reflected in differences in the transition between the first ERP negativity (N1) to the second
6 posterior positivity (P2p) (N1-P2p: 174-202 msec) and on the P2p (206-238 msec)
7 component itself. In contrast, Cao et al. (2010) showed differences for Chinese number
8 symbols but also found a N1-P2p and P2p distance effect for Arabic input. Cao and
9 collaborators noted that notation and semantic effects interact and co-occur at these latencies,
10 and therefore suggested, contrary to Libertus et al. (2007), a notation dependent access to
11 semantics. The question of whether quantity representation is abstract (McCloskey, 1992;
12 Dehaene and Cohen, 1995; Piazza et al., 2007) or whether it is multiple and format dependent
13 (Cohen Kadosh et al., 2007; Cohen Kadosh et al., 2010; Cohen Kadosh et al., 2011) remains
14 unanswered. Hsu and Szűcs (2012) studied the distance effect during an adaptation task,
15 which implies a non-intentional magnitude comparison. These authors again found distance
16 effects evoking ERP modulations in latencies approximately 200 msec as well as oscillatory
17 electroencephalography (EEG) activity at this latency. Taken together, these studies suggest
18 an effect approximately 200 msec for the automatic analysis of numerical magnitude. In
19 agreement with these previous studies, we focused on the distance effect within the N1 to P2
20 transition (hereafter N1-P2) and P2p latency bands and studied the effect as a dependent
21 variable indexing magnitude analysis.

22 This study capitalized on the coexistence of two numeral word systems in Basque-
23 Spanish bilingualism: all Spanish number words and some Basque number words include the
24 name of the decade and the unit [e.g., “cuarenta y seis” “Berrogeitasei” (*forty and six*) for 46
25 following the decimal system]. Importantly, however, Basque retains a partial vigesimal

1 system of number names together with the decimal system. The number 56 is expressed as
2 “berrogeitahamasei” (*forty ten and six*) as a compound word. Evidence about the impact of
3 the way in which we name digits on how we operate with them is mixed. Some studies have
4 shown that this influence is mediated by input-output processes (Brysbaert et al., 1998),
5 while other studies have shown that unit-decade compatibility effects vary depending on the
6 number word naming when using Arabic digits (Nuerk et al., 2005; Pixner et al., 2011).
7 Given the response dependencies on these word-to-math process effects, electrophysiological
8 evidence can be especially appropriate for their study. On the other hand, the way in which
9 these word-to-math process effects occurs in bilinguals can supply crucial information on the
10 origins and evolution of these linguistic prints. We studied brain signatures of these number
11 word systems while processing the corresponding Arabic numbers in two groups of fluent
12 bilinguals that only differed in their LL^{math} .
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29 Thus, taking advantage of the coexistence of two number word systems (Basque and
30 Spanish) we investigated early linguistic prints in the quantity code. 1) If number words
31 corresponding to LL^{math} are activated during the comparison of Arabic digits, ERPs to digits
32 that are linked through the Basque wording system should differ from ERPs to digits that are
33 linked through the Spanish wording system, depending on the LL^{math} . In this case, ERPs
34 modulations by the numerical distance between the digits should be independent from the
35 LL^{math} ; 2) Most importantly, if ERPs elicited by distance effects to Arabic digits related
36 through the vigesimal system differ depending on the participants’ LL^{math} , then the LL^{math}
37 would have left long-term traces in the semantics of numbers during early learning (i.e., there
38 is a predominance of representation in the LL^{math}).
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57 **2. Methods.**

58 **2.1 Participants**

1 Eighteen equally proficient Spanish-Basque bilinguals participated in this study. The
2 average age of acquisition of L2 Basque was 1.5 y (minimum 0 y, maximum 6 y). Nine
3 participants reported learning math in Spanish (LL_S^{math} group) and nine reported learning
4 math in Basque (LL_B^{math} group). Aside from the LL^{math} , the groups were equivalent in
5 proficiency: LL_S^{math} proficiency in Spanish, as measured by the Boston Naming Test (BNT)
6 (Kaplan et al., 1983; for other uses of the BNT as a measure of proficiency see e.g., Moreno
7 and Kutas, 2005 or Salillas and Wicha, 2012), was 54.8 (2.52) and in Basque was 48.8 (3.56)
8 ($t = 2.29$; $p = 0.05$); for the LL_B^{math} group, BNT scores were 53.4 (2) and 50.2 (3.63) ($t = 5.6$;
9 $p < 0.001$) for Spanish and Basque, respectively. Thus, both groups were slightly more
10 proficient in Spanish and were equivalent in relative proficiency ($t = 1.96$, $p = 0.09$). On
11 average, the LL_B^{math} group self-reported using Basque 39% of the time and Spanish 61% of
12 the time. The LL_S^{math} group self-reported using Basque 44% of the time and Spanish 56% of
13 the time (for percentage of use as a measure of proficiency see e.g., Chauncey et al., 2008).
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32 **2.2. Stimuli**

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36 One hundred and forty-four experimental pairs of digits were constructed according to
37 the verbal forms in Spanish and Basque. These pairs were of two types: A) **COMMON**
38 **PAIRS**, whereby 72 pairs were constructed according to the decimal system, which is
39 common to the verbal form in Basque and Spanish. For example, the structure for the verbal
40 form of “forty-six” is the same in both Spanish (“cuarenta y seis”) and Euskera
41 (“Berrogeitasei“). Each pair to be compared consisted of the whole number (e.g., 65) as the
42 first number and one of the two components of the number word as the second number (e.g.,
43 60 or 5), leading to pairs with two different numerical distances between the first and second
44 number to be compared. This led to **COMMON CLOSE PAIRS** such as 65-60, 46-40, or 85-
45 80, and **COMMON FAR PAIRS** such as 65-5, 46-6, or 85-5. B) **BASQUE PAIRS**, whereby
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1 72 pairs were constructed according to the Basque expression of the number, based on the
2 vigesimal (base 20) system, but implying the use of the closest even decade. For example, **56**
3 is “cincuenta y seis” in Spanish (fifty-six), but is “berrogeitahamasei“ in Basque, which also
4 implies the name “ten” (hamar) and “six” (bost) for sixteen. Similarly, each pair to be
5 compared consisted of the whole number (e.g., 78) as the first number to be compared and
6 the following even decade (60 or 10) as the second number. This led to BASQUE CLOSE
7 PAIRS such as 75-60, 56-40, and 95-80, and BASQUE FAR PAIRS such as 75-10, 56-10,
8 and 95-10. Therefore, to construct material related to the word form, the number of possible
9 pairs was limited. Nevertheless, close and distant pairs were different enough to generate
10 distance effects and were in a comparable range based on the absolute distance and results
11 (Table 1). Importantly, the hypothesis and relevant contrast were based on a between-subject
12 factor with identical items for each group of participants.
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31 **2.3. Procedure**

32 In all experimental items, the bigger number (e.g., 68) was presented first. To avoid
33 the inference of any rule, 144 fillers in the same order (large to small) and a pool of 288
34 fillers in the opposite order (small to large) were added. These filler pairs did not follow any
35 verbal form relationship and had random distance between the first and second number.
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43 Each of the 576 trials consisted of a fixation point that appeared for 1000 msec
44 followed by a blank screen for 350 msec. The first digit was then presented and remained on
45 the screen for 300 msec. The second number appeared for 300 msec. The trigger to the EEG
46 was sent with the appearance of the second number, and after a blank screen for 700 msec, a
47 question mark signaled the request of a delayed response. The task of each participant was to
48 decide whether the second number was bigger or smaller than the first number by pressing
49 one of two buttons.
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2.4. EEG recording and analysis

The EEG was recorded from 27 scalp electrodes embedded in an Easy-Cap in a 10 system array, which was referenced online to the left mastoid. Six free electrodes were used to record blinks (below the eye), horizontal eye movements (outer canthi), and left and right mastoid processes were used as a reference. Electrode impedances were maintained below 5 k Ω . The EEG was amplified with Brain Amp amplifiers, with the band pass set from 0.01 to 100 Hz, and sampled at a rate of 500 Hz. The output of the bioamplifiers was fed into a 32 channel 12-bit analogue-to-digital converter on a PC computer. Presentation software was used to present visual stimuli and record behavioral responses, and *Brain Vision Recorder* software was used to deliver event and timing codes to the data acquisition PC synchronously with the onset of EEG activity to events of interest. Data were re-referenced to the algebraic sum of the left and right mastoids, averaged for each experimental condition, and time-locked to the onset of the second number. A digital band-pass filter set from 0.1 to 30 Hz was used on all of the data prior to running analyses to reduce high frequency content that was irrelevant to the components of interest. Baseline correction used the 100 msec pre-stimulus. Trials with artifacts due to eye movements, excessive muscle activity, or amplifier blockage were eliminated offline before averaging to ensure roughly an equal loss of data across all conditions. Artifact rejection criteria were a minimum to maximum baseline-to-peak allowed voltage of ± 70 μV , a maximum voltage gradient of 75 μV per sample point, a maximal difference of 150 μV in intervals of 100 msec and a minimum voltage of 0.5 μV in intervals of 50 msec. All electrodes were assessed for artifacts. Analyses were reported for each critical stimulus relative to a 100 msec pre-stimulus baseline. The 27 electrodes were grouped for statistical analyses in two regions of interest (ROIs) with ten electrodes each:

1 ANTERIOR (Fp1, Fp2, F3, F4, F7, F8, FC1, FC2, FC5, and FC6) and POSTERIOR (CP1,
2 CP2, CP5, CP6, O1, O2, P4, P7, and P8 Pz).
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7 **3. Results.**

8 **3.1. LL^{math} verbal form of a digit determines core magnitude effects.**

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11 The N1-P2 amplitude (180-210 msec after the digit) was modulated by the distance
12 between the digits and this modulation depended on the type of pair *and* the LL^{math} (pair x
13 distance x group interaction: $F_{1,16} = 6.3$, $p = 0.02$). A main effect of distance was found for the
14 LL_S^{math} group ($F_{1,8} = 8.22$, $p = 0.02$) although this effect was significantly dependent on the
15 digit pair type (distance x pair interaction: $F_{1,8} = 9.87$, $p = 0.014$). An early access to number
16 semantics was reflected through more positive amplitudes for close numerical distances than
17 far numerical distances only for Common pairs in the LL_S^{math} group ($F_{1,8} = 12.57$, $p = 0.008$).
18 This distance effect was absent in Basque pairs ($F_{1,8} = 0.38$, $p = 0.5$) (Figure 2). For the
19 LL_B^{math} group, both Common and Basque pairs showed distance effects in the N1-P2
20 amplitude (main distance effect: $F_{1,8} = 39.76$, $p < 0.001$; Basque pairs: $F_{1,8} = 10.61$, $p = 0.01$;
21 Common pairs: $F_{1,8} = 6.68$, $p = 0.03$). All distance effects were widely distributed across the
22 scalp and presented anterior maxima (Figure 1). No main effect of pair or group x pair
23 interaction was significant ($F_s < 1$). A closer view at fractioned latency bands of 20 msec
24 between 130 to 210 msec showed no trace of an N1-P2 modulation by the distance for
25 Basque pairs in LL_S^{math} in either anterior or posterior sites (20 msec fractioned latency bands
26 from 150 to 230 msec showed a maximum effect of $F_{1,8} = 2.25$, $p = 0.17$ in 150 to 170 msec). In
27 an additional analysis, distance was taken as a parametric numerical value according to the
28 averaged ratio for each of the distances and pairs (Basque pairs close: ratio = 0.77; Basque
29 pairs far: 0.15; Common pair close: 0.90; Common pair far: 0.09). A significant correlation
30 between the ratios and the reported N1-P2 distance effects was found ($r = 0.28$, $p = 0.016$;
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1 R=0.28, $p=0.015$ with all pairs included, and $r=0.37$, $p=0.005$; $R=0.34$, $p=0.01$ excluding the
2 Basque pairs for the LL_S^{math} group) (Figure 3). In fact, the closest ratio values marginally
3 differed in the elicited N1-P2 amplitude ($F_{1,17}= 3.6$, $p=0.07$) both for the highest and the
4 lowest ratios (interaction $F_{1,17}= 1.8$ $p=0.2$ n.s.). This analysis further demonstrates that
5 number semantics had modulated the N1-P2 amplitude (Libertus et al., 2007; Cao et al.,
6 2010).

17 ***3.2. Later distance effect at the P2p for Basque pairs in the LL_S^{math} .***

19 Distance effects at the P2p (210-250 msec) were found for Basque pairs in the LL_S^{math}
20 group at posterior electrodes ($F_{1,8}= 5.34$, $p = 0.05$) (Figure 4). This increased positivity for
21 close distances appeared in the ascending portion of the P2 with the same posterior
22 distribution and latency as the previously reported P2p for symbolic and non-symbolic
23 distance effects (Libertus et al., 2007). Verbal traces thus appear to have an impact just in a
24 first phase of quantity processing (i.e., N1-P2 distance effect). For Basque pairs, the LL_B^{math}
25 group showed a continuation of the previous distance effect at this latency ($F_{1,8}= 23.36$, $p =$
26 0.001 ; anterior electrodes in Figure 2 and posterior electrodes and voltage maps in Figure 4
27 display the effect). A continuation of the previous distance effect with anterior distribution
28 (anterior electrodes in Figure 2 and voltage maps in Figure 4 display the effects) was also
29 found for Common pairs in the LL_B^{math} ($F_{1,8}= 6.68$, $p = 0.03$) and LL_S^{math} ($F_{1,8}= 4.94$, $p =$
30 0.05) groups.

31 To assure that the slight differences in general language proficiency for the two
32 languages were not modulating the reported distance effects, the influence of relative
33 language proficiency was also verified. Regression analyses showed that relative proficiency
34 (the BNT score of Spanish minus Basque: maximum = 11, minimum = -2, mean= 4.67,
35 $sd=3.94$) was not related to distance effects for any pair at any latency band in any group (All
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1 $R^2 < 0.09$ and all $p < 0.1$). In addition, the effect at the P2p for Basque pairs in the LL_B^{math}
2 group was not related to relative proficiency between languages ($R^2 = 0.09$, $p = 0.4$).
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7 **3.3. Word retrieval efficiency and the N1-P2 distance effects**

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9 Distance effects were not explained by the self-reported relative percentage of use
10 between Spanish and Basque (N1-P2 distance for Common pairs: $R^2 = 0.05$, $p = 0.36$; Basque
11 pairs: $R^2 = 0.027$, $p = 0.5$; P2p distance for Common pairs: $R^2 = 0.02$, $p = 0.58$; Basque pairs:
12 $R^2 = 0.11$, $p = 0.68$. For the LL_B^{math} group and Basque pairs: $R^2 = 0.14$, $p = 0.32$).
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19 Remarkably, the data showed the *importance of word retrieval efficiency, but only for the*
20 *early N1-P2 effect*. Word retrieval performance, which was measured as the average BNT
21 score in Basque and Spanish, was significantly correlated with N1-P2 distance effects ($R^2 =$
22 0.41 , $p = 0.004$) (Figure 5). The results showed that an increase in efficiency of word
23 retrieval is related to a larger distance effect for this component. This finding highlights the
24 importance of general linguistic ability in certain number processes and may point to an
25 activation of the number word with the sole perception of a digit co-occurring with distance
26 effects at the N1-P2 latency (Cao et al., 2010). Finally, word retrieval efficiency was found to
27 be orthogonal to the P2p ($R^2 = 0.09$, $p = 0.22$; LL_S^{math} : $R^2 = 0.09$, $p = 0.41$), which clarifies
28 the independence between language factors and the distance effect for Basque pairs found for
29 the LL_S^{math} group.
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49 **4. Discussion.**

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51 The N1-P2 distance effect dissociation across groups and digit pairs suggests that
52 number semantic properties, such as the distance effect, are critically dependent on linguistic
53 variables. This distance effect was found only for pairs grouped by the corresponding LL^{math} .
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1 semantics (Temple and Posner, 1998; Libertus et al., 2007; Cao et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2011).

2 It could be argued that N1-P2 distance effects may be due to perceptual processes of possibly
3 retrieved number words. The parametric analysis of this effect with ratio distance values
4 suggests that these N1-P2 modulations reflect access to quantity.
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9 The LL_S^{math} group showed a distance effect for Basque pairs in the latency band and
10 scalp distribution of the previously reported P2p (Temple and Posner, 1998; Libertus et al.,
11 2007). P2p has been shown to be sensitive to numerical distance in symbolic and non-
12 symbolic notations. All other conditions showed a carryover of the N1-P2 at this latency
13 band. The timing and scalp distribution of this effect suggests that there is not just a delay in
14 time but also evidence of a unique process behind this P2p.
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24 The fact that the two groups were equivalent in language dominance for Spanish and
25 Basque, and differed only in their LL^{math} , demonstrates that the pattern of distance effects was
26 determined by the specific LL^{math} of the participants. In other words, within the number
27 domain and in balanced bilinguals, the dominant code is determined early in childhood when
28 symbols (LL^{math}) are associated with quantity. Future studies are necessary to determine
29 whether a higher variability in proficiency than the low relative proficiency pattern used in
30 the present study could modulate LL^{math} effects. Although scarce, the ideal population to test
31 this would be bilinguals with a mismatch between L1 and LL^{math} .
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43 Finally, although word retrieval efficiency was related to quantity manipulation, no
44 interaction between LL^{math} and pair type or main effect of pair type was found in any of the
45 components. Thus, word retrieval efficiency association with the N1-P2 effect is the only
46 finding that could indirectly suggest that number words are being retrieved during the
47 comparison process. Consequently, although an activation of the number words cannot be
48 fully discarded, the described pattern of distance effects across groups and pair types,
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1 suggests that the quantity code entails verbal traces. A quantity code with verbal traces could
2 explain why word retrieval processes were related to number semantics in the present study.
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6 7 *A quantity code permeable to language?* 8

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10 The fact that no verbal response was asked, no verbal input was provided, and the
11 experimental design did not vary the format of stimuli presentation suggests that the observed
12 modulations in distance effects depend on long-term verbal traces in the quantity code, which
13 would determine the quality of verbal signatures in quantity (Cohen Kadosh et al., 2007;
14 Piazza et al., 2007; Cohen Kadosh et al., 2010; Cohen Kadosh et al., 2011). Only when those
15 naming forms are integrated during early learning do we obtain early ERP distance effects.
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24 Linguistic components in numerical representations and questions regarding a
25 linguistic origin of numerical concepts have been extensively studied through the exact-
26 approximate distinction (McCloskey, 1992; Dehaene and Cohen, 1995; Dehaene et al., 1999;
27 Spelke and Tsivkin, 2001; Butterworth et al., 2008). Exact arithmetic has been shown to
28 depend on language because it is verbally acquired by rote learning, whereas approximate or
29 magnitude comparisons would be held independently from language through the quantity
30 code. Specifically, the Triple Code Model (Dehaene and Cohen, 1995) for number processing
31 incorporates language in its auditory verbal word frame, which refers to arithmetic facts or
32 exact calculations. This model proposes that the analogue magnitude representation is
33 independent from language. A similar proposal is implied in the Abstract Code Model
34 (McCloskey, 1992), where the abstract semantic representation operates independently from
35 language once it is accessed. The Encoding Complex Hypothesis (Campbell and Clark, 1988)
36 offers a more interactive view, where the analogue magnitude code depends on a format
37 based on experience, and the interaction occurs in a fundamentally modular architecture
38 (Campbell and Epp, 2004). Nevertheless, the model does not contemplate the use of verbal
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1 information during comparison tasks with digits (Campbell and Metcalfe, 2008). Regarding
2 the debate of whether language precludes math, studies have proposed that if true, it would
3 only happen with exact facts and never with tasks such as approximation or comparison. It
4 has been recently hypothesized (Dehaene, 2009) that symbols introduced in the math system
5 may be linked to quantity in an automatic manner. In this manner, Dehaene explains format
6 dependencies on the distance effect (e.g., Cohen Kadosh et al., 2007). Our data clearly
7 suggest that language variables in number processing are not simply restricted to exact
8 arithmetic and that links between math and language extend to the quantity code and related
9 tasks, with the acquisition of numerical verbal symbols.
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22 Our proposal raises the possibility that the quantity code is permeable to language and
23 that early linguistic prints reside in adult quantity representation. This is similar to the view
24 that a spatial component integrates with numbers in the known mental number line (Dehaene
25 et al., 1993; Hubbard et al., 2005) or to the view that finger counting is influenced by
26 symbolic number comparison (Domahs et al., 2012; Domahs et al., 2010; Klein et al., 2011),
27 which is another consequence of the apparent malleability of core number semantics
28 (Dehaene et al., 1993; von Aster and Shalev, 2007) together with development. This is also
29 most likely the same mechanism by which Arabic symbols linearize the quantity system in a
30 recent neural network (Verguts and Fias, 2004) trained by unsupervised learning. Likely,
31 through the concurrent codification of number words and quantity, number words from
32 LL^{math} lead to changes in quantity, and, therefore, the base-20 system may be integrated
33 together with the base-10 system (McCloskey, 1992). In turn, modifications in the quantity
34 system due to the base-20 wording system, leads to an increased efficiency in quantity
35 manipulation. It is possible that representational changes may relate certain quantities
36 through links based on the vigesimal system (i.e., a link between 56 and 40 would be
37 established for a bilingual whose LL^{math} is Basque). When quantities become linked in the
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1 quantity code, the underlying mechanism during their contrast differs from unlinked
2 quantities. In turn, these links are of linguistic origin, perhaps of similar nature than operand
3 related items in arithmetic facts. The use of techniques with higher spatial resolution (i.e.
4 MEG) could provide with an anatomo-functional description of possibly different brain
5 networks behind the reported language sensitive N1-P2, and the P2p distance effects. It is
6 worth noting that French children have been found to perform erroneously when they use the
7 base-20 system, but this difficulty disappears in adulthood (Seron and Fayol, 1994), and
8 convergent early behavioral studies have already shown number word dependent number
9 representations in monolinguals for languages emphasizing the base-10 system, such as
10 Chinese (Miura and Irene, 1987; Miura et al., 1988).

23 *LL^{math} in bilinguals*

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29 The reported data suggest that balanced bilinguals who master both languages show
30 very different brain responses to basic mathematical tasks depending on early learning.
31 Importantly, the LL^{math} influence would have been expected only on exact arithmetic, such as
32 arithmetic facts that were verbally learned (Spelke and Tsivkin, 2001), and the importance of
33 early learning in one language (L+) for exact arithmetic memory networks has been
34 previously demonstrated (Salillas and Wicha, 2012). This study suggests that LL^{math} also
35 impacts the quantity code. Bilinguals have a redundancy of codes for the same numeric
36 meaning, and, therefore, the symbol-quantity match is not unitary. Nevertheless, only one of
37 the verbal codes seems to be deeply linked to magnitude.
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51 In summary, the present study suggests that quantity representation is permeable to
52 language during early learning when the numerical symbolic system is acquired and is
53 associated with quantity. Contrary to current wisdom, this concept is supported by the
54 detection of possible linguistic marks in distance effects when simply comparing Arabic
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1 digits. The results also stress the relevance of the linguistic environment in which a bilingual
2 learns and uses math. The selectivity of the N1-P2 distance effect on specific verbal
3 relationships between numbers depends on LL^{math} . In addition, the management of quantity
4 can also operate independent of language, as reflected by a later P2p distance effect. Early
5 distance effects are related to general retrieval efficiency. This finding suggests that access to
6 magnitude involves linguistic factors that have not been contemplated in previous studies and
7 emphasizes the interplay between math and language in the development of adult numerical
8 representations. These findings can clearly have important consequences for bilingual math
9 operation when more complex computations are built upon more basic processes or in
10 dyscalculia.
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Table 1. Characteristics of the stimuli

		Ratio	Absolute Difference	log(diff)	diff(log)
	Close	0.77	14.8	1.16	0.14
Basque	Far	0.15	54.8	1.70	0.78
pairs	difference	0.62	40	0.53	0.65
Common	Close	0.90	5	0.62	0.05
Pairs	Far	0.09	50	1.65	1.08
	difference	0.81	45	1.03	1.03

Figure1
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

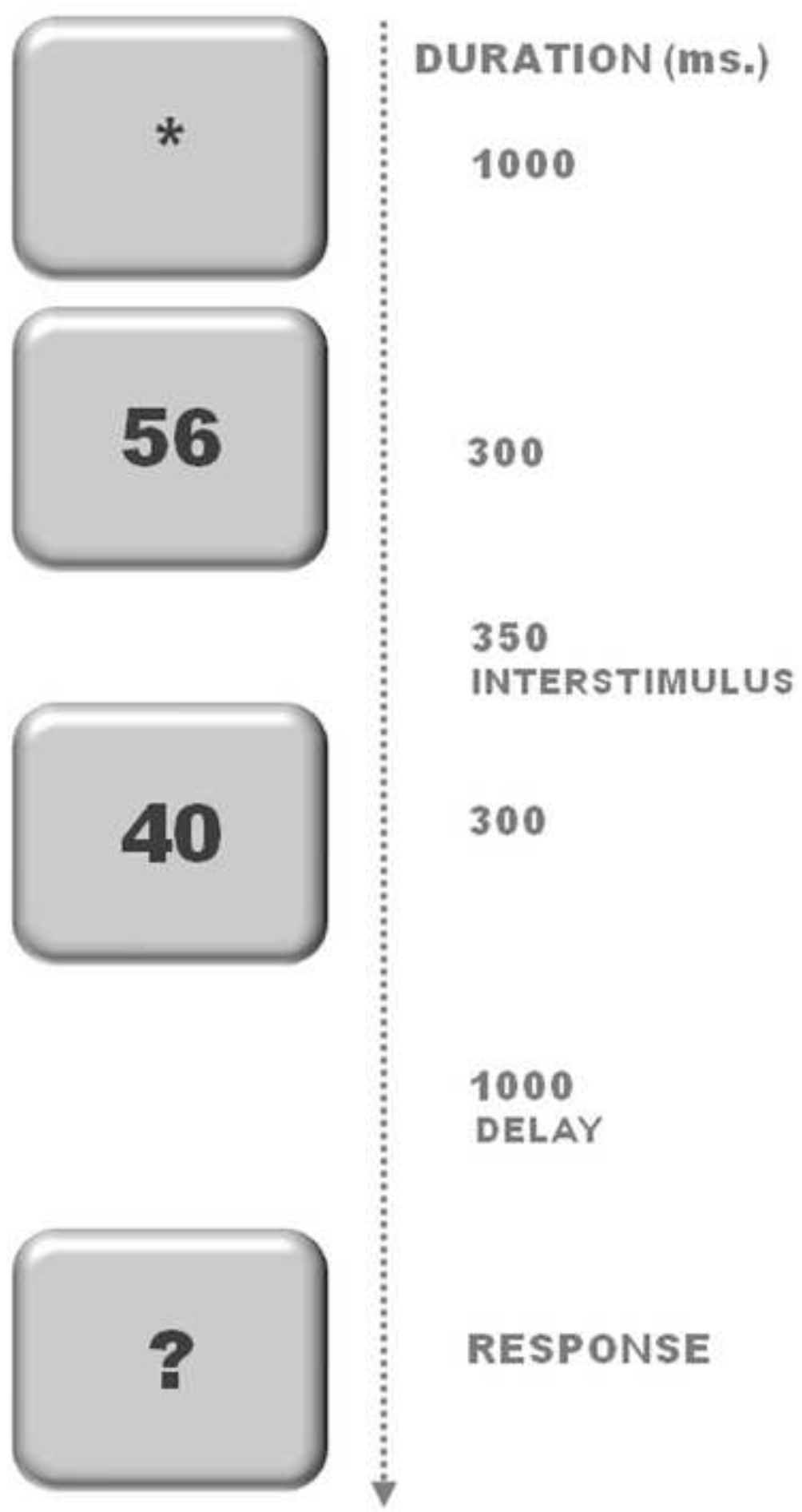


Figure2

[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

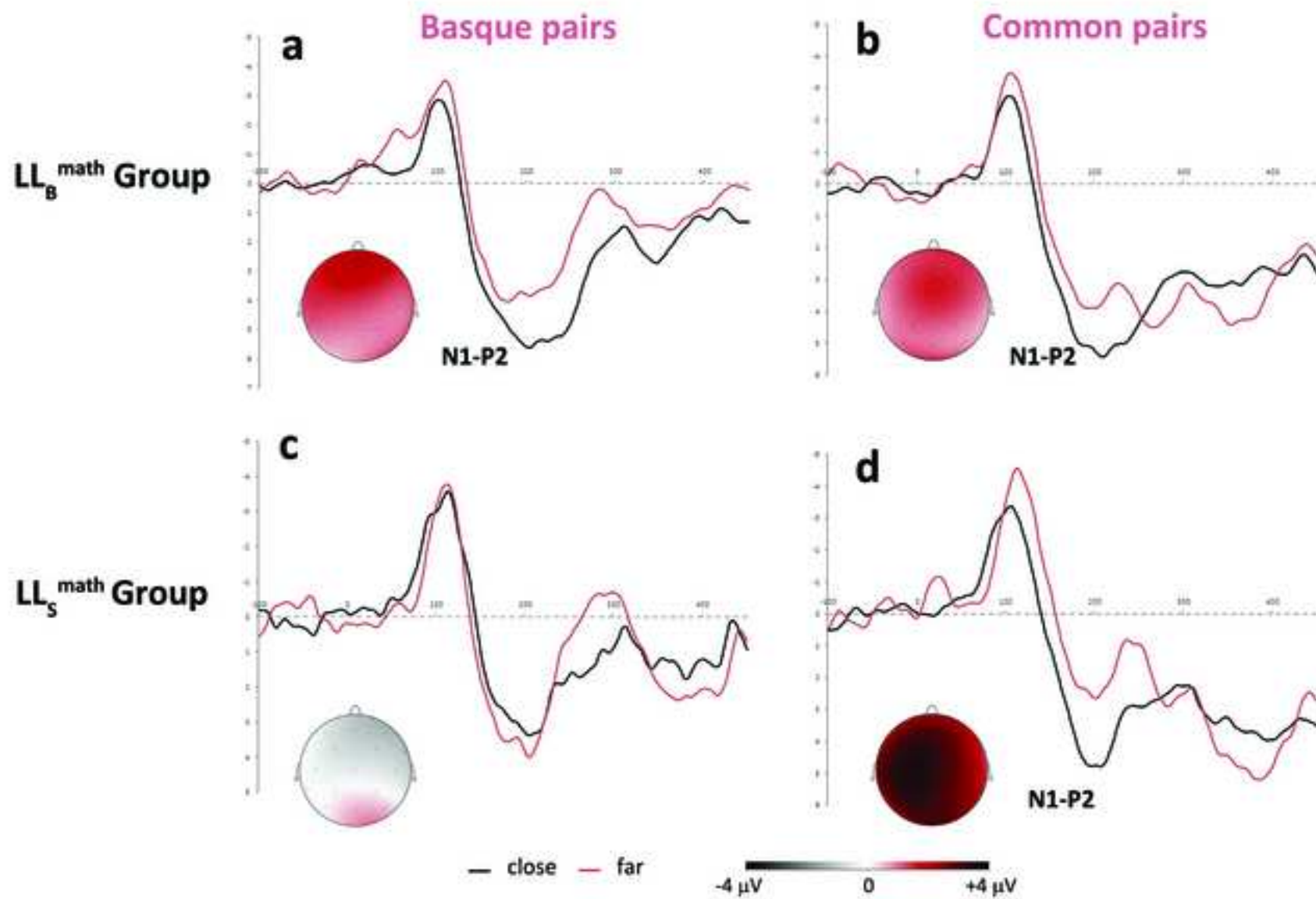


Figure3
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

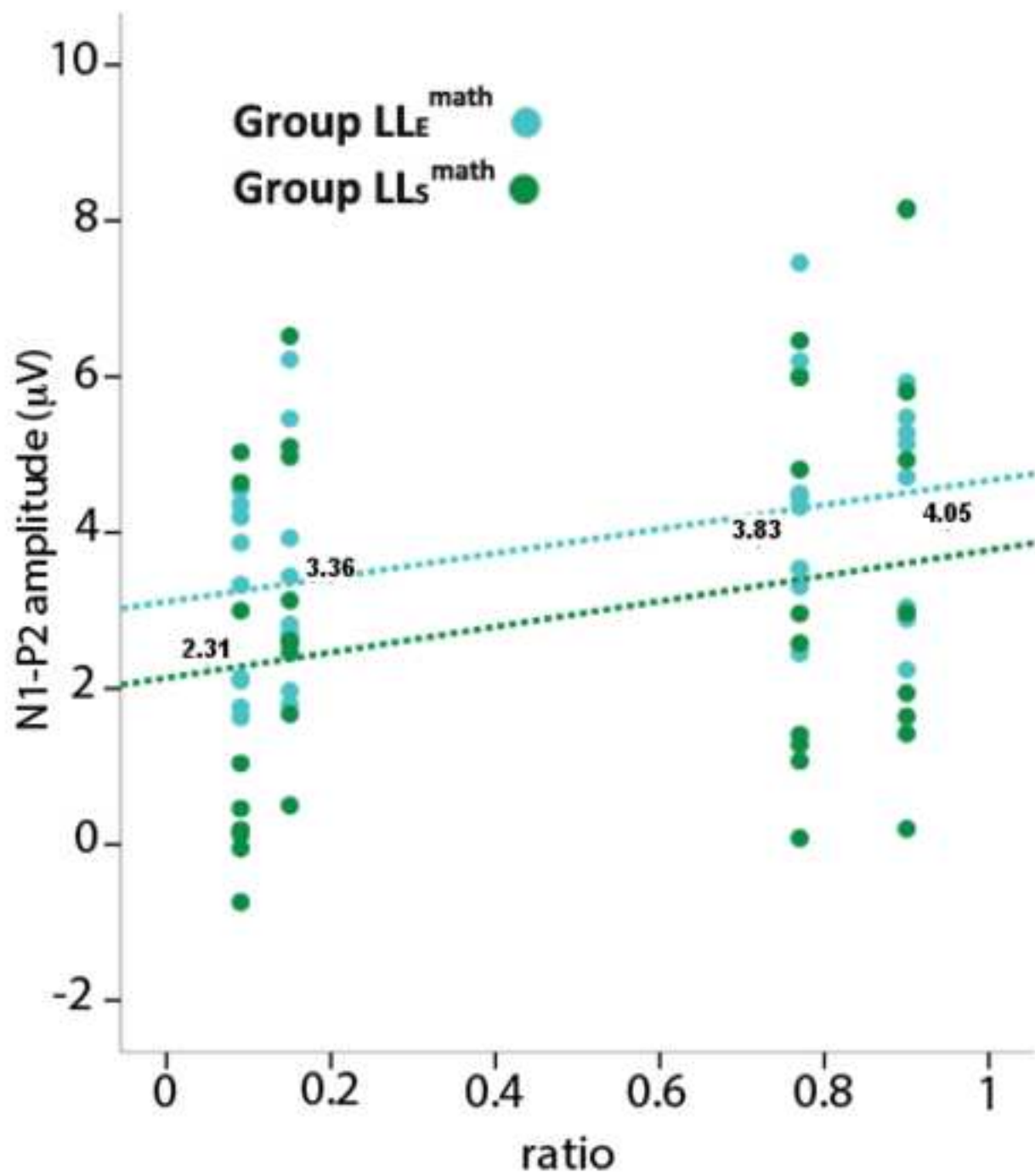


Figure4

[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

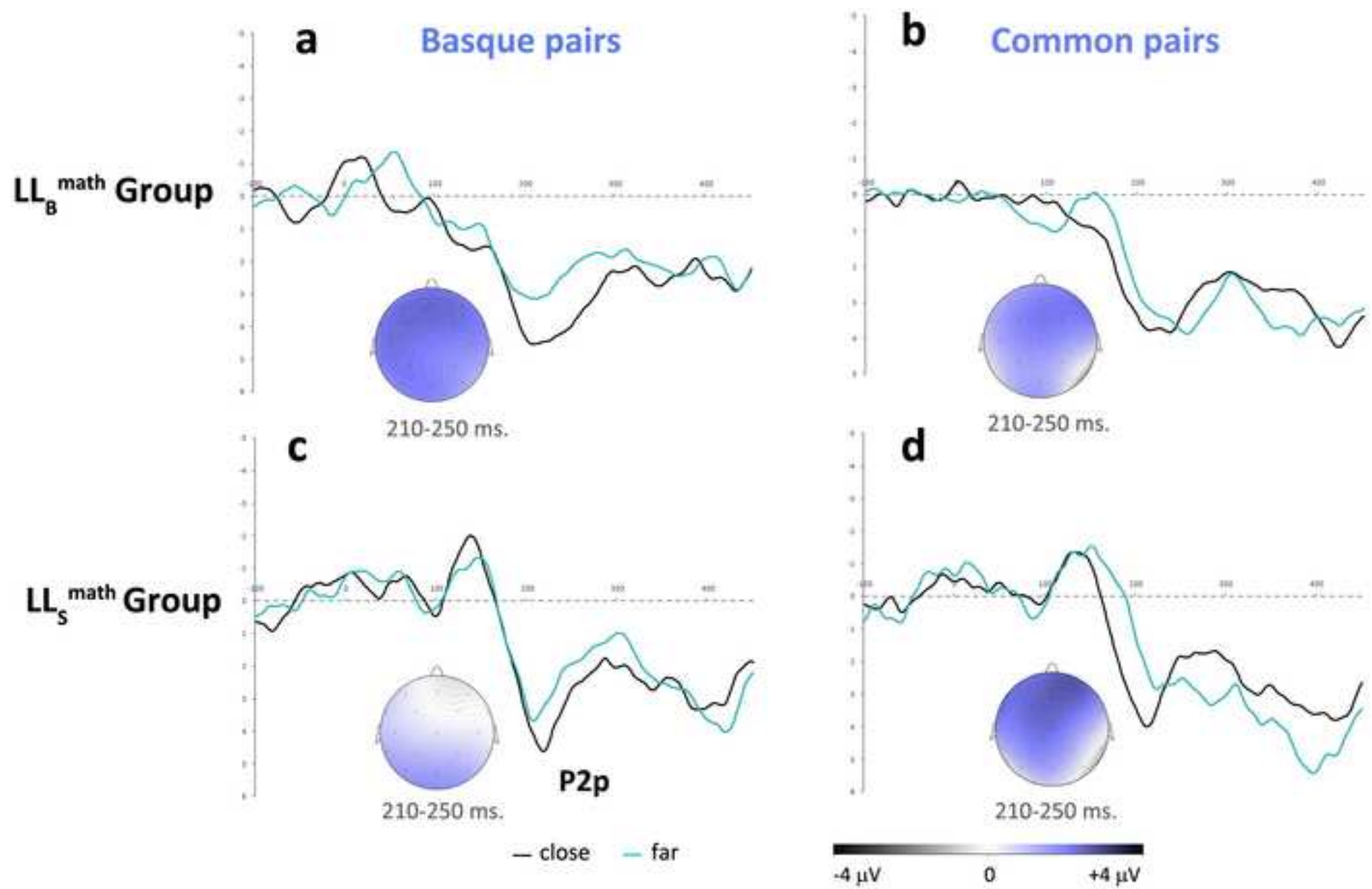


Figure5

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