

3-8-2022

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Publication Info

Postprint version. Published in *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, 2022.

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Cluttering in the Speech of Males with Fragile X Syndrome

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Abstract

Purpose: Cluttering is a fluency disorder that has been noted clinically in individuals with fragile X syndrome (FXS). Yet, cluttering has not been systematically characterized in this population, hindering identification and intervention efforts. The present study examined the rates of cluttering in young adult males with FXS using expert clinical opinion, the alignment between expert clinical opinion and objectively quantified features of cluttering from language transcripts, and the association between cluttering and aspects of the FXS phenotype.

Method: Thirty-six males with FXS (18-26 years; $M = 22$, $SD = 2.35$) contributed language samples and completed measures of nonverbal cognition, autism symptoms, anxiety, and symptoms of attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). The presence of cluttering was determined by the consensus of two clinical experts in fluency disorders based on characteristics exhibited in the language sample. Cluttering features (speech rate, disfluencies, etc.) were also objectively quantified from the language transcripts.

Results: Clinical experts determined that 50% of participants met the criteria for a cluttering diagnosis. Phrase repetitions were the most salient feature that distinguished individuals who cluttered. Although the presence of cluttering was not associated with autism symptoms or mean length of utterance, cluttering was more likely to occur when nonverbal cognitive ability was higher, ADHD symptoms were elevated, and anxiety symptoms were low.

Conclusions: Half of the young adult males with FXS exhibited cluttering, which supports FXS as a genetic diagnosis that is highly enriched for risk of cluttering. Cluttering was associated with increased ADHD symptoms and cognitive ability, and reduced anxiety symptoms. This study contributes a new description of the clinical presentation of cluttering in males with FXS and

43 may lead to improved understanding of the potential underlying mechanisms of cluttering and
44 eventual refinements to treatment and diagnosis.

45

Cluttering in the Speech of Males with Fragile X Syndrome

46
47 Cluttering is a speech-language fluency disorder characterized by reduced intelligibility
48 due to issues related to a perceived rapid or irregular rate of speech. It is different from stuttering
49 in that people who stutter have motoric difficulty maintaining the forward flow of speech,
50 whereas in cluttering, individuals are perceived to produce speech at a rapid or irregular pace
51 which reduces intelligibility or causes the message to break down (Scaler Scott & St. Louis,
52 2009; St. Louis & Schulte, 2011; Van Zaalen- op 't Hof et al., 2009). Both stuttering and
53 cluttering have been found to co-occur with neurodevelopmental disabilities such as autism
54 spectrum disorder (ASD); however, cluttering rarely occurs in isolation (Scaler Scott et al., 2014;
55 St. Louis & Schulte, 2011; Van Borsel & Vandermeulen, 2009). The rate of cluttering among
56 individuals with intellectual disability appears to be substantially elevated relative to the general
57 population, with emerging evidence suggesting that as many of 50% of individuals with
58 intellectual disability exhibit clinically significant cluttering (Coppens-Hofman et al., 2013).
59 Although fragile X syndrome (FXS), the leading inherited cause of intellectual disability
60 (Rousseau et al., 1994), has often been claimed to be associated with cluttering, there have been
61 few systematic empirical investigations of the prevalence, presentation, or correlates of
62 cluttering within this group. The present study focused on the occurrence and presentation of
63 cluttering within young adults with FXS and relationships between cluttering and other aspects
64 of the FXS phenotype in an effort to inform assessment and treatment.

65 **Characterization of Cluttering**

66 Cluttering is a clinical disorder of speech fluency diagnosed by speech language
67 pathologists (SLPs) related to a perceived abnormal rate and overall reduced intelligibility
68 (Scaler Scott & St. Louis, 2009; St. Louis et al., 2003, 2007; Van Zaalen- op 't Hof et al., 2009).

69 Although the prevalence of cluttering in the general population is unknown, St. Louis et al.
70 (2010) estimate approximately 50% of people in the United States know a person who clutters. A
71 common set of criteria used by clinicians and experts to diagnose cluttering is the Lowest
72 Common Denominator (LCD; Scaler Scott & St. Louis, 2009; Scaler Scott, 2020; St. Louis &
73 Schulte, 2011), which relies on a handful of perceptual features of speech. According to the LCD
74 definition, perceived rapid or irregular speech rate for the speaker is a mandatory feature;
75 however, the perception of rapid/irregular rate has proven difficult to quantify objectively.
76 Studies show that the speech rate of individuals who clutter is not always objectively faster than
77 average, despite the perception of faster rate (Bretherton-Furness & Ward, 2015; Van Zaalén-
78 't Hof et al., 2009). It is posited, therefore, that the perceived rapid rate is specific to the speaker,
79 where instances of more rapid rate within a speaking context surpass the intrinsic rate needed for
80 articulate fluent speech (St. Louis & Schulte, 2011).

81 “Bursts” of more rapid speech may cause successive breakdowns that manifest as speech
82 production errors, such as disfluencies, over-coarticulation, and atypical pauses (Bakker et al.,
83 2011; Scaler Scott, 2020; Scaler Scott & St. Louis, 2009). Thus, in addition to perceived rapid or
84 irregular speech rate, the LCD definition requires the presence of at least one of the following
85 features: excessive “normal” disfluencies, excessive over-coarticulation, and/or excessive
86 atypical pauses (St. Louis & Schulte, 2011). Disfluencies are defined as phrase repetitions,
87 multisyllabic word repetitions, single-word and syllable repetitions without tension, revisions
88 (i.e., “I [went] ran to the store”), and interjections (i.e., “I [uh] ran to the store”). Over-
89 coarticulation includes an excessive degree of influence from surrounding words, causing
90 syllable and sounds to be overly blended or omitted. Atypical pauses are defined as pauses that
91 occur in places other than at syntactic boundaries (St. Louis & Schulte, 2011).

92 When diagnosing cluttering using the LCD definition, SLPs must use clinical experience
93 to judge the impact on the speaker’s intelligibility (Scaler Scott & St. Louis, 2009). There are no
94 specific criteria for a perceived fast speech rate or what constitutes “excessive” occurrences of
95 disfluencies and over-articulation. Thus, the LCD definition relies on perceptual judgment rather
96 than objective data. The current study was designed to compare expert clinical opinion using the
97 LCD definition to objective measurements of LCD characteristics such as rate of speech and
98 relative frequency of over-articulations and disfluencies. It was hypothesized that this
99 comparison could provide complementary objective LCD data useful for clinicians assessing
100 cluttering.

101 **Cluttering in Individuals with FXS**

102 FXS is an X-linked neurodevelopmental disorder that occurs in approximately 1:7000-
103 11,000 individuals (Hunter et al., 2014) caused by an excessive generation of repeats of the CGG
104 trinucleotide sequence on the Fragile X Mental Retardation (*FMRI*) gene (Hunter et al., 2014).
105 The *FMRI* gene is responsible for making fragile X mental retardation protein (FMRP) essential
106 to cognitive development, and FMRP is reduced or absent in FXS (Hagerman et al., 2017).
107 Males are typically more severely impacted than females, with the majority of males with FXS
108 having an intellectual disability and about 60% meeting diagnostic criteria for ASD (Abbeduto et
109 al., 2019; Hallin et al., 2016; Harris et al., 2008; Klusek et al., 2014). Children with FXS
110 frequently have symptoms or co-occurring diagnoses of anxiety and/or attention-deficit
111 hyperactivity disorder (ADHD; Ezell et al., 2019; R. J. Hagerman et al., 2018). Speech and
112 language disorders are also common in this population, and decreased speech intelligibility is a
113 prominent feature of the FXS communication profile (Abbeduto & Hagerman, 1997; Adlof et al.,
114 2015; Barnes et al., 2009; Finestack & Abbeduto, 2010; Shaffer et al., 2020). Anecdotal reports

115 describe perceived rapid rate of speech and speech that sounds “cluttered” in individuals with
116 FXS (e.g., Hanson et al., 1986). However, cluttering has not been systematically examined in
117 FXS, leaving SLPs with limited guidance on the assessment and intervention for cluttering in
118 this group.

119 Although increased language disfluencies (i.e., repetitions, interjections, revisions and
120 pauses) have been reported in individuals with FXS (Kover & Abbeduto, 2010; Van Borsel et al.,
121 2008), the presence of cluttered speech in FXS has not been formally studied with the exception
122 of one study including 10 males with FXS aged 3-8 years (Hanson et al., 1986). Investigators
123 used a classification system that evaluated fluctuations in speech rate, rate of repetitions, history
124 of articulation problems, attention problems, developmental delay, history of speech problems in
125 a close relative, and self-awareness of a speech problem. These investigators found that 9 out of
126 10 participants exhibited a perceived rapid and irregular rate of speech with repetitions of
127 sounds, words, or phrases. The most salient cluttering features present were perceived abnormal
128 rate, repetitions, and atypical pauses.

129 **Relationships Between FXS Phenotype and Cluttering**

130 Underlying causal mechanisms for cluttering are unknown; however, emerging evidence
131 suggests cluttering is related to a number of processes, including cognitive and language ability,
132 and executive function (Myers, 2011; St. Louis & Schulte, 2011; Van Zaalen-Op’t Hof et al.,
133 2009). Research in other neurodevelopmental disabilities such as Down syndrome has found that
134 individuals with lower nonverbal IQ clutter or show symptoms of cluttering more often than
135 individuals with typical development (Coppens-Hofman et al., 2013; Eggers & Van
136 Eerdenbrugh, 2018; Van Borsel & Vandermeulen, 2009). Thus, general cognitive delay, as
137 reflected by IQ may interfere with fluent speech and disrupt intelligibility. Increases in “normal”

138 disfluencies and cluttering also occur in disabilities in which expressive language deficits, such
139 as specific language impairment, are a feature (St. Louis & Schulte, 2011; Thordardottir & Ellis
140 Weismer, 2002). Finally, an increase in the features of cluttering has also been associated with
141 deficits in pragmatic language, executive functioning, and expressive language (Bangert &
142 Finestack, 2020; Belser & Sudhalter, 2001; Jones et al., 2017; Navarro-Ruiz & Rallo-Fabra,
143 2001; Turkstra et al., 2004).

144 Cognitive and language delays are prominent features of the core FXS phenotype, and
145 thus could contribute to cluttering in this population. Further, individuals with FXS show high
146 rates of comorbid ASD, ADHD, and anxiety, which may increase vulnerability for cluttering.
147 Individuals with nonsyndromic ASD and individuals with ADHD, for example, show high rates
148 of cluttering and/or excessive disfluencies (Scaler Scott & St. Louis, 2009; Scaler Scott et al.,
149 2014; Engelhardt, Ferreira, & Nigg, 2011; Redmond, 2004). Positive associations between
150 anxiety and disfluent speech have been documented in the general population (Goberman et al.,
151 2011; Iverach et al., 2014, 2016), although there are no studies that have directly investigated the
152 association between anxiety and cluttering. In individuals with FXS, some research indicates that
153 the incidence of increased rate and disfluent speech is triggered by anxiety associated with
154 social-conversational demands (Belser & Sudhalter, 2001), although cluttering per se has yet to
155 be examined in association with anxiety in this population. In a small-scale study, Kover and
156 Abbeduto (2010) found reduced speech intelligibility in individuals with FXS who also had a co-
157 occurring diagnosis of ASD. Improved understanding of how core features of the FXS phenotype
158 relate to the presentation of cluttering in this group is needed to hone treatment approaches. For
159 example, if executive dysfunction is associated with the presence of cluttering, this could spur

160 future research examining whether integrating executive targets in treatments for cluttering in
161 FXS result in improved outcomes (Myers, 2011).

162 **Neurological Perspective of Cluttering in FXS**

163 The study of cluttering in individuals with FXS also has the potential to provide insights
164 about the mechanistic pathways that contribute to cluttering. There are currently no known genes
165 implicated in the presence of cluttering, although there are well-documented neural signatures
166 such as abnormal connectivity to and from the anterior cingulate cortex and supplemental motor
167 area, cerebellum, and basal ganglia in cluttering and stuttering (Alm, 2011; Craig-McQuaide et
168 al., 2014; Scott, 2006; Ward et al., 2015). Dysregulation in these regions, especially in the
169 anterior cingulate cortex and supplemental motor area, may account for symptoms of cluttering.
170 Current brain imaging data support the notion that the anterior cingulate cortex and supplemental
171 motor area assemble speech by retrieving linguistic components from Wernicke's and Broca's
172 areas, and are associated with volitional motor control, attention, suppression of automatic
173 responses, and execution and timing of sequential behavior (Alm, 2011). The basal ganglia
174 circuits facilitate word selection and filter out competing alternatives, and the cerebellum is
175 involved in sequencing articulatory movements (Alm, 2011). Abnormal connectivity between
176 these regions could impact speech and language processing, resulting in breakdowns in the flow
177 of speech production. For example, disinhibition of the basal ganglia due to a hyperactive
178 dopamine system may cause dysregulation of the medial frontal cortex, which includes the
179 anterior cingulate cortex and supplemental motor area regions.

180 In FXS, many structures of the brain may be impacted, presumably due to *FMRI*
181 plasticity-related protein synthesis deficiencies (Abbeduto & Hagerman, 1997; Hagerman et al.,
182 2017). Alterations in the anterior cingulate cortex have been documented in individuals FXS

183 (Mercaldo et al., 2009), and these alterations could contribute to cluttering. Anatomical changes
184 related to *FMR1* gene dysfunction have also been found in the posterior cerebellar vermis, which
185 is a region important for processing sensory stimuli, sensory motor coordination, and motor
186 output (Hagerman, 1997). Studies of adults with cerebellar disease or lesions in the posterior
187 cerebellar vermis show increased dysarthria and reduced verbal fluency (Öztürk et al., 2014;
188 Schmahmann & Sherman, 1998), and Ward et al. (2015) detected equal extensive activations of
189 the vermis in adults who clutter and controls during a picture description task. Studying
190 cluttering within the context of FXS, a monogenic condition that has relatively well understood
191 genetic and neural mechanisms, could broaden our understanding of neuropathways involved in
192 cluttering.

193 **The Present Study**

194 This is the first systematic study to characterize cluttering in males with FXS using
195 objective measures of the LCD criteria and expert clinical opinion and to examine associations
196 between cluttering and core aspects of the FXS phenotype. We focused on a well-characterized
197 sample of young adult males with FXS, aged 18-26 years old. This study served to inform the
198 prevalence, presentation, and associated features of cluttering in males with FXS. Our specific
199 research questions and hypotheses were as follows:

- 200 1. What is the rate of cluttering in young adult males with FXS per expert clinical
201 consensus following the LCD definition of cluttering? *We anticipated that 50-90% of*
202 *males with FXS would demonstrate cluttering, based on previous findings of*
203 *cluttering in individuals with FXS and other forms of intellectual disability* (Coppens-
204 Hofman et al., 2013; Hanson et al., 1986).

- 205 2. What is the relationship between objective measurements of the cluttering features
206 (speech rate, non-stuttering like disfluencies, atypical pauses, and over-coarticulation)
207 and expert clinical consensus cluttering diagnoses? *We predicted that males with FXS*
208 *who were identified as exhibiting cluttering per expert clinical opinion would show*
209 *faster rates and increased frequency of the features of cluttering.*
- 210 3. Are core characteristics of the FXS phenotype (i.e., cognitive impairment, language
211 impairment, anxiety, ADHD, and ASD symptoms) associated with cluttering
212 diagnoses and/or objectively measured LCD features? *We predicted that phenotypic*
213 *traits of FXS would be associated with increased likelihood of an expert clinical*
214 *opinion cluttering diagnosis and with faster rates and increased frequency of the*
215 *cluttering features.*

216 Method

217 Participants

218 Participants were 36 males with FXS, aged 18-26 years ($M = 21.69$ years, $SD = 2.35$)
219 drawn from a larger, longitudinal study focused on language development in adolescent males
220 with FXS (Abbeduto et al., 2019). FXS was confirmed via genetic testing (>200 CGG copies on
221 5'UTR of *FMR1*). Inclusionary criteria required that participants were native speakers of English
222 and regularly used phrase speech (minimum 2- to 3-word utterances) according to caregiver
223 report. Participants were also required to live at home with their biological mothers at study entry
224 because the larger study included a focus on maternal factors. Participant demographic
225 characteristics are presented in Table 1. All participants had an intellectual disability, with a
226 mean nonverbal IQ of 39.54 ($SD = 4.60$) as found in the larger project (described below). Sixty-
227 nine percent of the sample met the criteria for a comorbid ASD diagnosis ($n = 24$) on the Autism

228 Diagnostic Observation Schedule-2 (ADOS-2: Lord et al., 2012) and the Autism Diagnostic
 229 Interview-Revised (ADI-R; Rutter et al., 2003) using criteria laid out by Risi et al. (2006).

230 Participant recruitment was conducted nationally in the United States. Methods of
 231 recruitment included social media, word-of-mouth, family support groups, advertisements
 232 through the National Fragile X Foundation, and assistance from the Intellectual and
 233 Developmental Disabilities Research Center (IDDRC) Research participant registries of the
 234 Carolina Institute for Developmental Disabilities and the MIND Institute of the University of
 235 California Davis Health.

236 Table 1.

237 *Participant Demographics*

| Variable | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------|--------|
| Family Income | | |
| | \$20,000-\$30,000 | 16.67% |
| | \$30,001-\$50,000 | 5.56% |
| | \$50,001-\$80,000 | 19.44% |
| | \$81,001-\$100,000 | 13.89% |
| | \$100,001-\$150,000 | 25.00% |
| | \$150,001 or greater | 19.44% |
| Race | | |
| | Black or African American | 5.71% |
| | American Indian or Alaskan Native | 2.86% |
| | White | 91.43% |
| Education | | |
| | High school graduate | 11.11% |
| | Some college | 19.44% |
| | Associate’s or technical degree | 11.11% |
| | Bachelor’s degree | 38.89% |
| | Graduate degree | 19.44% |

238

239 **Procedures**

240 Assessments were conducted as part of a two-day research protocol that took place in a
 241 university research laboratory setting at the University of California Davis Health and the

242 University of South Carolina. The language and cognitive assessments were administered in a
243 standardized order across both sites. A language sample was administered in the afternoon of the
244 first day of the protocol. Caregivers were mailed a packet of questionnaires to complete in the
245 two weeks prior to their study visit, which included the Childhood Behavioral Checklist (CBCL;
246 Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000). Data for the present study were collected during the fourth yearly
247 assessment of the larger longitudinal study, with the exception of the ASD assessment via the
248 ADOS-2 and ADI-R which was completed only in the first yearly assessment in the larger
249 longitudinal study. ASD symptoms in adolescents with FXS have been shown to be relatively
250 stable over time (Hernandez et al., 2009). Procedures were approved by the Institutional Review
251 Boards (IRB) of the respective university sites. Caregiver consent and participant assent were
252 obtained.

253 **Evaluation of Cluttering**

254 *Language Sampling Context*

255 Cluttering was evaluated from language sampled from a 10-minute conversation with an
256 examiner, following the standard procedures originally outlined by Abbeduto et. al (1995) and
257 described in Kover et al. (2012). Conversation was elicited by a female examiner starting with an
258 idiosyncratic topic of interest followed by a series of open-ended questions on standard topics
259 (e.g., favorite sport, activities, family members). Examiners followed up with open-ended
260 prompts to encourage participants to expand their talk (e.g., “Tell me why you like your friend so
261 much”). The amount of time spent on each topic was driven by participant interest. The goal was
262 to reach ten minutes of conversation with each participant; however, the conversation was
263 considered over when the examiner exhausted all topics and prompts from the script. The
264 average sample duration for the current study was 7.8 minutes ($SD=2.03$). The conversations

265 took place in a quiet room and were recorded using digital Sony PCM voice recorders. To ensure
266 consistency across occasions and examiners, all examiners completed rigorous fidelity training
267 using the scripted content, including how, when, and how often they made comments and asked
268 follow-up questions. The reliability protocol required practice administrations with children with
269 typical development and children with developmental delay until 90% accuracy on a fidelity
270 rubric of critical administration components was achieved (see Kover et al., 2012, for details).
271 The complete manual describing the language sampling administration, training, and fidelity
272 procedures can be access at
273 <https://ctscassist.ucdmc.ucdavis.edu/ctscassist/surveys/?s=W9W99JLMNX> .

274 *Cluttering Diagnosis via Expert Clinical Consensus*

275 To determine the presence of cluttering via expert opinion, audio recordings of the
276 language sample were independently reviewed for the presence of cluttering by two Ph.D.-level
277 speech-language pathologists with expertise in the clinical evaluation of cluttering (K.S.S. and
278 C.A.), each with more than 20 years of experience and one being board certified in fluency
279 disorders. The samples were analyzed for cluttering according to the LCD definition of
280 cluttering (Ward & Scaler Scott, 2011) and following the methods of Scaler Scott (2020).
281 Samples identified as displaying cluttering needed to exhibit perceived rapid or irregular rate in
282 connected speech at least some of the time. Per LCD criteria, in addition to a perceived rapid
283 rate, a perceived excessive number of normal disfluencies, over-coarticulations, and/or atypical
284 pauses were also required. The term “excessive” was defined as resulting in a perception of
285 decreased efficiency of message transmission. Moments of over-coarticulation were
286 distinguished from coarticulation due to other speech differences or disorders (e.g., articulation
287 disorders, accent) by listening for patterns in speech across contexts (e.g., at different times in

288 the sample). If there was a distorted, substituted, omitted sound, clinicians ascertained whether
289 this pattern was observed repeatedly. For example, if distorted /r/ occurs elsewhere in the
290 sample, over-coarticulation was ruled out and decreased intelligibility due to listener
291 unfamiliarity with dialect or articulation difficulty was ruled in. Additionally, moments of over-
292 coarticulation were confirmed when these moments were accompanied by rapid-sounding rate
293 and by determining whether multisyllabic words in general were clearer when rate was slower
294 for that particular sample. For participants for whom there was not initial agreement across the
295 two experts, consensus was achieved via review of the samples and discussion.

296 *Objective Characterization of Cluttering Features*

297 Objective calculation of the presence of each of the LCD features was determined via
298 coding of the audio-recorded language sample. These features were selected for inclusion
299 because they align with the LCD definition of cluttering: non-stuttering like disfluencies (number
300 of phrase repetitions, multisyllabic word repetitions, single syllable word repetitions without
301 tension, revisions, interjections; Ambrose & Yairi, 1999; Yairi & Ambrose, 1992), the
302 occurrence of over-coarticulation (i.e., deletion of one or more sounds or syllables of a word;
303 Scaler Scott, 2020), and atypical pauses (pauses in places other than at syntactic boundaries;
304 Scaler Scott, 2020). To correct for differences in sample length, the cluttering variables were
305 converted to a percentage by dividing the total occurrence of the variable by the total number of
306 words, multiplied by 100. A rate variable reflecting average syllables per second was also
307 calculated for each participant, using Prosogram (Mertens, 2004), a script for the speech analysis
308 program Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2016). Prosogram identifies the local intensity peaks in the
309 filtered speech signal and then, using fundamental frequency, intensity, and variations in voicing

310 in the spectrum, modifies the boundaries of the intensity peaks into syllable units (Mertens,
311 2004). Those units are then counted and divided by the total number of seconds for the sample.

312 Coding for the cluttering features was conducted by research assistants who had received
313 at least 10 hours of training on the coding of fluency variables by a board-certified fluency
314 specialist (K.S.S.). During training, coders transcribed and coded fluency features from five
315 different videos of children and adults with cluttering and/or stuttering symptoms. In areas in
316 which there was less than 90% agreement among raters, discrepancies were discussed among the
317 raters and a cluttering specialist (K.S.S.), and criteria were refined as needed to increase
318 objectivity of definition. Areas with less than 90% agreement were re-coded one week later,
319 using (if applicable) revised objective criteria. Coders were determined to have completed the
320 training after inter-rater reliability was $\geq 90\%$ over three consecutive samples. Once coders
321 completed reliability training, each sample was coded by one research assistant and then a
322 second independent coder followed the original coder and double-scored the first 20% of
323 utterances. If agreement between the two independent coders was $< 80\%$ on observed cluttering
324 features, a third independent coder evaluated the sample and all three coders achieved consensus
325 via discussion, with the consensus scores used in analysis. Prior to consensus, inter-rater
326 reliability was calculated with intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) following Koo and Li
327 (2016), with values less than 0.50 considered poor reliability, 0.50-0.75 moderate reliability,
328 0.75-0.90 good reliability, and greater than 0.90 excellent reliability. Reliability was as follows:
329 $ICC(3, 5) = 0.93$ for word repetitions, 0.82 for phrase repetitions, 0.88 for interjections, 0.80 for
330 atypical pauses, 0.68 for over-coarticulations, and 0.60 for revisions. Thus, inter-rater reliability
331 was “moderate” to “excellent” prior to consensus coding, and all samples that had poor
332 reliability across raters were consensus coded.

333 **Measures of Core Aspects of the FXS Phenotype**

334 *Nonverbal IQ*

335 The Leiter-R (Roid, G., & Miller, 1997) is a nonverbal measure of intellectual
336 functioning normed for individuals between the ages of 2-21 years. The Brief IQ was obtained,
337 which consists of four subtests: figure ground, form completion, sequential order, and repeated
338 patterns. For participants who were over the age of 21 years ($n = 17$) we used the upper age limit
339 of the Leiter-R norms (i.e., 21 years) to compute standard scores, consistent with Abbeduto et al.
340 (2019) and Roberts et al. (2018). Given that all participants were in the moderate-severe
341 impairment IQ range and performed at the floor or near the floor in terms of Leiter-R standard
342 scores, growth scale values, which provide an index of absolute ability, were used instead.

343 *ASD Symptom Severity*

344 The ADOS-2 (Lord et al., 2012) calibrated severity score was used to detect the presence
345 of ASD and determine the severity of ASD symptoms. In the ADOS-2, the examiner codes
346 behavioral items related to communication, social interaction, imagination/play, stereotyped
347 behaviors/restricted interests, and abnormal behaviors based on observations made during a
348 semi-structured interaction with the participant. Calibrated severity scores range from 1 to 10,
349 with a “1” indicating minimal-to-low ASD symptom severity and a “10” indicating high ASD
350 symptom severity. All project staff examiners who administered the ADOS-2 were trained to
351 research reliability standards. To establish cross-site reliability, 10% of videorecorded
352 administrations were randomly selected for review and consensus scoring across sites.
353 Consensus codes were reached for each scored item via group discussions and each examiner
354 then calculated mean percent agreement with the consensus codes. Inter-rater agreement across
355 items averaged 80%.

356 *Anxiety and ADHD Symptoms*

357 The Childhood Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000) Anxiety
358 Problems and Attention Problems subscale raw scores were used to index symptoms of anxiety
359 and ADHD. The CBCL is a standardized informant report measure used to identify emotional
360 and behavioral problems in children between the ages of 6-18 years based on caregiver report.
361 For the measure, primary caregivers rated their children on a 3-point scale, with 0=Not true,
362 1=Somewhat/sometimes true, and 2 =Very/often true on 113 items. DSM-oriented subscales for
363 anxiety problems and ADHD symptoms were computed. The Anxiety Problems subscale is a
364 six-item scale that represents symptoms of general anxiety, social anxiety, and specific phobia.
365 The Attention Problems subscale is a 10-item scale that represents symptoms of ADHD
366 including inattention, impulsivity, and hyperactivity. Higher scores indicate higher levels of
367 difficulty in each area. Raw scores were used in analysis because not all participants fell within
368 the age range for test norms. The 6-18 year-old form was used because the adult form was
369 judged to be inappropriate for the developmental level of the sample, consistent with the
370 methods of studies focused on young adults with FXS (Chromik et al., 2019; J. Roberts et al.,
371 2019; J. E. Roberts et al., 2018). Caregivers completed the CBCL.

372 *Language Ability*

373 Mean length of utterance in morphemes (MLU) was calculated as an overall language
374 ability measure. MLU is a widely used benchmark of early expressive syntactic language ability,
375 and commonly used in individuals with language impairments (Condouris et al., 2003). MLU
376 was calculated according to Systematic Analysis of Language Transcripts (SALT; Miller &
377 Chapman, 2000) conventions, using transcripts that were transcribed from the audio files by
378 trained research assistants. Transcription training consisted of analysis of practice language

379 samples until >90% morpheme agreement among transcribers was achieved over three
380 consecutive training files. Twenty-five percent of the participant's language samples were
381 randomly selected and transcribed by a second independent transcriber to obtain ICCs (Koo &
382 Li, 2016) for inter-rater reliability for MLU. A high degree of reliability was found across raters,
383 with $ICC(3, 5) = 0.94$.

384 **Data Analysis**

385 Analyses were conducted using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). First,
386 descriptive statistics and variable distribution were examined. No corrections were determined
387 necessary following visual inspection of study variables. The first research question regarding
388 the rate of cluttering in males with FXS was addressed via descriptive statistics comparing those
389 who were determined to exhibit cluttering per expert clinical opinion to those who did not
390 exhibit cluttering. To better describe the profile of cluttering in FXS, the cluttering subgroups
391 were compared on age, Leiter-R growth scale scores, ADOS-2 severity score, MLU, CBCL
392 ADHD and anxiety scores via a series of general linear models with cluttering status as the
393 primary predictor. Next, the second research question regarding the relationship between
394 objective cluttering features and expert clinical opinion was addressed. A series of general linear
395 models tested differences in the presentation of each of the seven objective cluttering features
396 (percentages of phrase repetitions, word repetitions, revisions, interjections, over-coarticulations,
397 and atypical pauses, and the number of syllables per second), across the cluttering subgroups. An
398 FDR correction procedure was applied within each series of analyses to correct for multiple
399 comparisons (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995). The relationship between objective cluttering
400 features and expert clinical cluttering diagnoses was also examined by analyzing the relative
401 contributions of each of the objective cluttering features to the expert-opinion cluttering

402 diagnosis. A single logistic regression model tested the objective cluttering features as relative
 403 predictors of the presence of cluttering via expert clinical opinion. To inform the specification of
 404 this logistic regression model and rule out collinearity among variables, a Pearson’s correlation
 405 matrix was computed among the objective cluttering features (see Table 2). Finally, we
 406 addressed the third research question regarding the relationship between cluttering (objective
 407 features and expert clinical diagnoses) and core aspects of the FXS phenotype by computing
 408 Pearson’s correlations between each of the objective cluttering features and the Leiter-R growth
 409 scale values, ADOS-2 severity score, CBCL ADHD subscale raw score, CBCL Anxiety subscale
 410 raw score, and MLU. A logistic regression tested these phenotypic features as predictors of the
 411 presence of cluttering as determined via expert opinion.

412 Table 2

413 *Correlation Matrix*

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|----------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. Phrase Repetition Percent | 1.00 | .48* | .23 | <.01 | -.24 | -.19 | -.12 |
| 2. Whole Word Repetition Percent | | 1.00 | .22 | -.03 | .34* | .17 | -.28 |
| 3. Revision Percent | | | 1.00 | .40* | -.17 | -.25 | -.30 |
| 4. Interjection Percent | | | | 1.00 | -.07 | -.04 | -.12 |
| 5. Over-coarticulation Percent | | | | | 1.00 | .50* | -.18 |
| 6. Atypical Pause Percent | | | | | | 1.00 | -.40* |
| 7. Syllables per Second | | | | | | | 1.00 |

414 * $p < .050$

415

416 **Results**

417 **Rates of Cluttering per Expert Clinical Consensus**

418 The consensus of the clinical experts indicated that 50% of participants met LCD criteria
 419 for cluttering based on the characteristics exhibited in the language sample. There were no
 420 differences across subgroups of participants who did and did not meet criteria for cluttering in
 421 age (FDR-corrected $p = .780$, $R^2 = .01$), nonverbal cognitive ability as indicated by the Leiter-R
 422 growth scale value score (FDR-corrected $p = .713$, $R^2 = .03$), MLU (FDR-corrected $p = 0.825$,
 423 $R^2 < .01$), ASD symptom severity score (FDR-corrected $p = 0.825$, $R^2 < .01$), or scores on the
 424 CBCL Anxiety Problems (FDR-corrected $p = .714$, $R^2 = .04$) or ADHD (FDR-corrected $p =$
 425 0.416 , $R^2 = .09$) subscales. See Table 3 for descriptive statistics of the core
 426 developmental/behavioral measures of the FXS phenotype across the subgroups.

427 Table 3

428 *Measures of Core Aspects of the FXS Phenotype across Cluttering Subgroups*

| Variable | Group | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|------------------------|
| | Subgroup without Cluttering ($n=18$) | Subgroup with Cluttering ($n=18$) | Full Sample ($n=36$) |
| Nonverbal IQ ^a | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 39.18 (4.48) | 39.89 (4.83) | 39.54 (4.60) |
| Range | 36.00-52.00 | 36.00-52.00 | 36.00-52.00 |
| Leiter-R GSV ^b | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 442.38 (9.09) | 469.00 (8.97) | 468.11 (9.01) |
| Range | 441.00-485.00 | 453.00-484.00 | 441.00-485.00 |
| Receptive Vocabulary ^c | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 51.11 (15.78) | 59.88 (19.57) | 55.50 (18.08) |
| Range | 20.00-86.00 | 20.00-94.00 | 20.00-90.00 |
| ASD symptoms ^d | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 5.22 (2.18) | 5.53 (2.32) | 5.37 (2.23) |
| Range | 1.00-9.00 | 2.00-10.00 | 1.00-10.00 |
| MLU | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 7.22 (3.26) | 7.00 (2.75) | 7.11 (2.97) |
| Range | 2.54-13.72 | 3.87-12.63 | 2.54-13.72 |
| Total number of words | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 874.83(394.44) | 878.89(447.82) | 876.86 (419.91) |
| Range | 255.00-1481.00 | 302.00-1803.00 | 255.00-1803.00 |

| | | | |
|--|-------------|-------------|------------|
| Anxiety ^e | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 3.44 (2.85) | 2.39 (2.40) | 2.92(2.66) |
| Range | 0.00-8.00 | 0.00-9.00 | 0.00-9.00 |
| ADHD ^f | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 5.17 (3.22) | 7.72 (4.80) | 6.44(4.23) |
| Range | 0.00-11.00 | 0.00-16.00 | 0.00-16.00 |
| ^a Leiter-R Brief IQ scaled score, ^b Leiter-R growth scale values, ^c PPVT-3 standard scores ^d ADOS-2 Calibrated Severity Score; ^e Childhood Behavior Checklist (CBCL) anxiety subscale raw score; ^f CBCL ADHD subscale raw score. | | | |

429

430 Comparison of Objective Features across Cluttering Subgroups

431 A significant group effect was detected for phrase repetitions ($F [1, 35] = 12.93$, FDR-
432 corrected $p = .007$, $R^2 = .28$), with phrase repetitions occurring more frequently in those who met
433 criteria for cluttering via expert clinical opinion. The effect of group did not account for
434 significant variance in whole word repetitions (FDR-corrected $p = .080$, $R^2 < .01$), revisions
435 (FDR-corrected $p = .705$, $R^2 = .04$), interjections (FDR-corrected $p = .997$, $R^2 = .13$), over-
436 coarticulations (FDR-corrected $p = .997$, $R^2 < .01$), atypical pauses (FDR-corrected $p = .952$, R^2
437 $= .02$), or syllables per second (FDR-corrected $p = .997$, $R^2 < .01$). See Table 4 for descriptive
438 statistics of the objective cluttering features across the subgroups.

439 Table 4

440 *Descriptive Statistics of Objective Cluttering Features across Cluttering Subgroups*

| Variable | Group | | |
|---------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|------------------------|
| | Subgroup without Cluttering ($n=18$) | Subgroup with Cluttering ($n=18$) | Full Sample ($n=36$) |
| Phrase Repetition Percent | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 0.35 (0.32) | 0.90 (0.57) | 0.62 (0.53) |
| Range | 0.00-1.09 | 0.37-2.36 | 0.00-2.36 |
| Word Repetition Percent | | | |
| <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>) | 0.53 (0.51) | 1.08 (0.88) | 0.80 (0.76) |
| Range | 0.00-1.88 | 0.00-3.18 | 0.00-3.18 |
| Revision Percent | | | |

| | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <i>M</i> (SD) | 1.01 (0.98) | 1.45 (1.19) | 1.23 (1.10) |
| Range | 0.00-3.46 | 0.33-4.99 | 0.00-4.99 |
| Interjection Percent | | | |
| <i>M</i> (SD) | 3.56 (2.83) | 3.25 (2.67) | 3.41 (2.72) |
| Range | 0.38-10.91 | 0.00-8.84 | 0.00-10.91 |
| Over-Coarticulation Percent | | | |
| <i>M</i> (SD) | 2.60 (5.14) | 2.76 (5.98) | 2.68 (5.49) |
| Range | 0.00-4.02 | 0.00-20.91 | 0.00-20.91 |
| Atypical Pause Percent | | | |
| <i>M</i> (SD) | 0.64 (0.98) | 0.43 (0.77) | 0.53 (0.88) |
| Range | 0.00-4.02 | 0.00-2.65 | 0.00-4.02 |
| Syllables per Second | | | |
| <i>M</i> (SD) | 4.34 (0.62) | 4.34 (0.91) | 4.34 (0.76) |
| Range | 2.96-5.33 | 2.48-5.79 | 2.48-5.79 |

441

442

443 **Relative Predictive Value of Objective Features in Expert Clinical Opinion Diagnosis**

444 Increased frequency of phrase repetitions emerged as the only significant predictor of the
 445 presence of cluttering ($\chi^2 [1, n = 36] = 6.650, p = .010$), with none of the other objective features
 446 accounting for significant variance in cluttering diagnosis via expert clinical opinion (all p 's >
 447 .260); see Table 5 for odds ratios. For every unit increase in phrase repetition, the odds of
 448 meeting the LCD-definition criteria for cluttering increased by a factor of 165.19 (95% CI: 3.41,
 449 >999.99), see Figure 1.

450 Table 5.

451 *Logistic Regression Model Showing Objective Cluttering Features as Relative Predictors of*
 452 *Cluttering Diagnosis via Expert Clinical Opinion*

| | Odds Ratio (CI 95%) | <i>p</i> -value |
|------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------|
| Phrase Repetitions | 165.186 (3.408, >999.999) | .010* |
| Whole Word Repetitions | 1.404 (0.190, 10.130) | .737 |
| Revisions | 1.419 (0.471, 4.274) | .534 |

| | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|------|
| Interjections | 0.902 (0.643, 1.266) | .551 |
| Over-Coarticulations | 1.127 (0.915,1.387) | .261 |
| Atypical Pauses | 0.892 (0.224, 3.560) | .872 |
| Syllables per Second | 2.075 (0.496,8.679) | .318 |

453 * $p < .050$

454

455 **Relationship between the FXS Phenotype and Cluttering Features and Diagnosis**

456 Results of the logistic regression model indicated that symptoms of ADHD and anxiety
457 symptoms were significant predictors of the presence of cluttering ($\chi^2 [1, n = 35] = .526, p =$
458 $.011; \chi^2 [1, n = 35] = -.842, p = .020$, respectively), as was cognitive ability ($\chi^2 [1, n = 35] =$
459 $.150, p = .044$). Neither ASD severity ($\chi^2 [1, n = 35] = .040, p = .862$) nor language ability as
460 indicated by MLU ($\chi^2 [1, n = 35] = .068, p = .715$) were significant predictors of the presence of
461 cluttering. For every unit increase in ADHD symptoms, the odds of meeting the LCD-definition
462 criteria for cluttering increased by a factor of 1.69 (95% CI: 1.13, 2.53), see Figure 2. For every
463 unit increase in anxiety symptoms, the odds of meeting the LCD-definition criteria for cluttering
464 decreased by a factor of 0.43 (95% CI: 0.21, 0.87), see Figure 3. For every unit increase in
465 cognitive ability, the odds of meeting LCD-definition criteria for cluttering increased by a factor
466 of 1.16 (96% CI: 1.00-1.34), see Figure 4. Correlations between the objective cluttering features
467 and the FXS phenotypic variables were also examined and are presented in Table 6.

468

Discussion

469 The current study investigated cluttering in a well-characterized sample of young adults
470 with FXS and examined relationships between cluttering and aspects of the FXS phenotype.
471 Findings showed that 50% of individuals presented with cluttering per clinical expert opinion.

472 Cluttering was more likely to be present when individuals with FXS exhibited an increased use
473 of phrase repetitions but was not predicted by other linguistic features that were objectively
474 measured from language samples, including whole word repetitions, revisions, interjections,
475 over-coarticulations, atypical pauses, and fast rate. Although the presence of cluttering was not
476 associated with ASD symptoms or language ability, cluttering was more likely to occur when
477 ADHD symptoms were elevated. Surprisingly, increased anxiety and decreased nonverbal
478 cognitive skills were associated with reduced likelihood of cluttering. Overall, this study
479 contributes to our understanding of the clinical presentation of cluttering in young adult males
480 with FXS and may lead to improved understanding of the potential underlying mechanisms of
481 cluttering and eventual refinements to the treatment and diagnosis of cluttering in FXS.

482 **Prevalence of Cluttering in Young Adults with FXS**

483 Half of the young adult males with FXS in the current study were identified as having a
484 cluttering disorder by clinical experts. This percentage is consistent with that observed in
485 individuals with other forms of intellectual disability (Coppens-Hofman et al. 2013). Yet, it is
486 notably lower than the rate reported in a preliminary study by Hanson et al. (1986), in which nine
487 of a sample of ten children with FXS (aged 3-10 years) presented with cluttering. The increased
488 rate in the Hanson report may be due to the younger age of the sample, as younger children may
489 experience developmental spurts in speech and language learning which may impact fluency
490 (Scaler Scott & St. Louis, 2009). Additionally, we applied the more narrow LCD criteria to
491 identify the presence of cluttering, which is the currently the most widely accepted
492 characterization of cluttering (St. Louis & Schulte, 2011; Ward & Scaler Scott, 2011); these
493 diagnostic criteria had not yet been developed at the time of the Hanson study and likely yielded
494 a more accurate characterization of cluttering in the present report. Of course, the very small

495 sample of Hanson et al. also decreases confidence in the prevalence observed. The high rates of
496 cluttering detected in this report, with 50% of males with FXS affected, suggest the need for
497 increased awareness of risk for cluttering in FXS among SLPs which may result in improved
498 selection of intervention targets to increased communication efficiency in individuals with FXS.
499 This study also highlights the important need for increased research in intervention efforts
500 targeting cluttering in this population.

501 The high percentage of cluttering in our study also suggests the need for future research
502 on potential common genetic and neural pathways implicated in cluttering and FXS. Given our
503 results indicating that FXS is highly enriched for cluttering, it is possible that *FMRI* plays a role
504 in the manifestation of cluttering. There are currently no known genes associated with cluttering,
505 although studies suggest that cluttering shows substantial heritability at a rate of .53-.65 (Fagnani
506 et al., 2011). *FMRI* and its product, FMRP, have widespread involvement in neurocognitive
507 development (Hagerman & Hagerman, 2002; Hagerman, 1997; Loesch & Hagerman, 2012;
508 Tassone et al., 2000) and could potentially play a mechanistic role in cluttering. Indeed,
509 variability in the CGG repeat length on *FMRI*, including CGG repeat lengths falling within the
510 normal range, have been connected with more disfluent speech (Klusek et al., 2018). More
511 research into the role of *FMRI* in cluttering could be beneficial in informing mechanistic
512 pathways underlying the condition.

513 **Relationship between Objectively Measured Cluttering Features and Expert Clinical** 514 **Opinion Diagnoses**

515 In addition to characterizing rates of cluttering per the LCD criteria applied by expert
516 clinical opinion, this study also utilized objectively measured cluttering features from the
517 language samples in order to systematically characterize cluttering. Of the cluttering features

518 measured (e.g., phrase and word repetitions, revisions, interjections, over-coarticulations,
519 atypical pauses, and syllables per second), phrase repetition was the only feature that was
520 predictive of the presence of cluttering, and the only feature that distinguished the subgroups of
521 those with and without cluttering. Phrase repetitions, which have been primarily studied in FXS
522 as an aspect of perseverative language, are a feature of the FXS language profile that has been
523 well-documented in previous studies (Abbeduto et al., 2007; Hanson et al., 1986; Martin, 2009;
524 Sudhalter & Belser, 2001; Van Borsel et al., 2008). This study builds on our understanding of the
525 use of phrase repetitions in FXS by establishing their association with cluttering, although it
526 remains unclear why this aspect of language was specifically linked with cluttering. One
527 possibility is that phrase repetitions in FXS may be associated with unique paralinguistic features
528 that lead to the perception of cluttered speech (for example, rapid rate exhibited during phrase
529 repetitions); this hypothesis may be explored in future studies. Evaluating the presence of and
530 targeting phrase repetitions could be a useful tool for SLPs diagnosing and treating cluttering,
531 although more research is needed. For example, does treatment aimed toward slowing rate and
532 reformulating utterances reduce the frequency of phrase repetitions and result in reduced severity
533 of cluttering or improved intelligibility?

534 Aside from phrase repetitions, no other objectively measured cluttering features
535 significantly predicted cluttering status, nor did those features differ across the subgroups of
536 those who were classified as clutterers and those who were not. This was a surprising finding,
537 especially for our measure of rate given that rapid or irregular rate is the only mandatory
538 characteristic of cluttering in LCD criteria. Increased rate of speech has been noted clinically in
539 FXS and was thought to relate to disfluencies and reduced intelligibility in this group (Belser &
540 Sudhalter, 2001; Mirrett et al., 2003; National Fragile X Association, 2020). Therefore, we

541 expected a faster rate to be particularly notable among males with FXS who exhibited cluttering.
542 Although abnormal rate was noted subjectively by the clinical experts who evaluated the
543 presence of cluttering, this finding was not observed in our objective measure of rate. Indeed, the
544 mean rate overall was 4.34, which seems to fall within normal limits for average American
545 English speaking adults (Jacewicz et al., 2009). Nonetheless, these findings do align with a
546 number of previous studies of cluttering outside of the context of FXS that have found no rate
547 differences across individuals who clutter and do not clutter (Bakker et al., 2011; Garnett & St.
548 Louis, 2014; Lees et al., 1996; Van Zaalen- op 't Hof et al., 2009). It has been hypothesized that
549 the rate in cluttering may be perceived as rapid due to variation in rate affected by other
550 cluttering symptoms (Williams, 2019). This hypothesis may align with the high frequency of
551 repetitions as a distinguishing feature of cluttering in the current sample. In the case of FXS, it is
552 also possible that fast speech rate is a central aspect of the communication phenotype and is not
553 unique to those who clutter. Future research should explore the inclusion of other methods for
554 quantifying rate that may better align with the perception of fast speech.

555 **Associations Between FXS Phenotype and Cluttering Diagnosis/Symptoms**

556 Increased ADHD symptoms was a significant phenotypic predictor of the presence of a
557 cluttering disorder in our sample of individuals with FXS. This finding aligns with evidence
558 suggesting that deficits in executive functioning that are commonly observed in ADHD,
559 specifically organization and planning, are associated with an increase in language disfluencies
560 (Oomen & Postma, 2001; Turkstra et al., 2004). This also aligns with self-reports and reports of
561 cluttering and symptoms of ADHD in adults with cluttering (St. Louis & Scaler Scott, 2011;
562 David Ward & Scaler Scott, 2011). Future investigation of specific executive functioning
563 abilities associated with cluttering in individuals with FXS could inform the relationship among

564 these variables and potentially spur future intervention studies aimed toward improving
565 cluttering via targeting executive functions. Of note, SLPs should be aware that individuals with
566 FXS and co-occurring ADHD may be at higher risk for cluttering or conversely, individuals with
567 FXS who clutter may benefit from screening for ADHD co-occurrence.

568 Contrary to our predictions, *lower* anxiety significantly predicted the presense of
569 cluttering. Anxiety and disfluent speech are associated the general population (Goberman et al.,
570 2011; Iverach et al., 2014, 2016). Specifically within FXS, anxiety and associated hyperarousal
571 during social interactions have been theorized to underlie repetitive speech (Belser & Sudhalter
572 2001). However, our findings suggest that higher anxiety levels result in fewer instances of
573 cluttering. This could reflect an increase in self-monitoring due to anxiety, which aligns with the
574 notion that for many with cluttering, symptoms “normalize” when the speaker is recorded due to
575 increased self-monitoring (Van Zaalen-op & Reichel, 2015). The measurement of anxiety in
576 individuals with intellectual disability is imprecise, and it is also possible that associations were
577 skewed by under-reporting of symptoms in more affected individuals (Cordeiro et al., 2011).
578 More research in this area is needed. Future studies incorporating physiological measures of
579 stress may inform the manifestation of cluttering. For example, measures of heart rate or heart
580 rate variability during a social interaction could inform whether cluttering is associated with
581 physiological hyperarousal, which is a hallmark feature of FXS (Klusek et al., 2015). Currently
582 no empirical studies examining the link between arousal and disfluent speech or cluttering in
583 FXS exist.

584 Another somewhat surprising finding was that higher nonverbal cognitive ability was
585 associated with a higher likelihood of cluttering. The reason for this pattern is unclear. One
586 potential explanation could be that increased cognitive ability translates to better language skills

587 and increased speech verbosity, which in turn allows for more opportunities to exhibit cluttering.
588 However, this seems unlikely considering that our analysis controlled for MLU. It is notable that
589 the range of cognitive skills was restricted in our sample (IQ's ranged from 36-53) and therefore
590 the detected pattern may not generalize across the full range of intellectual function. Follow-up
591 studies involving females with FXS, who exhibit greater variability in cognitive skills than
592 males, may be useful in untangling the relationship between cognitive impairment and cluttering
593 in individuals with FXS. Nevertheless, the relationship between cognitive performance and
594 cluttering has clinical implications regarding the identification of co-occurring conditions in
595 individuals with intellectual disability. For example, clinicians may be less likely to recognize
596 and treat cluttering when it occurs within the context of a genetic syndrome such as FXS. This
597 phenomenon is known as *diagnostic overshadowing*, or when symptoms are attributed to
598 intellectual disability rather than being recognized a separate co-morbidity, and is noted in the
599 literature as problematic (Jopp & Keys, 2001; Mason & Scior, 2004; Reilly et al., 2015). Our
600 findings suggest that the opposite is true -- cluttering was more likely to occur in males with FXS
601 when cognitive skills were less impaired. Therefore, cluttering should be recognized as a co-
602 occurring condition in FXS that may warrant intervention.

603 Finally, MLU was not associated with increased cluttering. Although MLU was
604 employed in the current study as a measure of overall language ability, MLU may also be
605 conceptualized as an indicator of linguistic complexity, particularly when MLU is low
606 (Condouris et al., 2003; Scarborough, 1990). Increased linguistic complexity has been associated
607 with greater disfluency in previous literature (Maclachlan & Chapman, 1988; Wagner et al.,
608 2000) and we therefore might have expected higher MLU to relate to increased features of
609 cluttering. However, only phrase repetitions were significantly associated with MLU, and the

610 relationship was *negative*, where phrase repetitions increased at lower MLU's. Thus, we did not
611 observe increased cluttering features at higher linguistic complexity, as marked by MLU. The
612 inclusion of other complexity measures in future studies may be useful in delineating the
613 relationship between linguistic complexity and cluttering.

614 **Strengths and Limitations**

615 This study is the first to examine cluttering in young adults with FXS. A particular
616 strength is that cluttering was evaluated by clinical professionals with over 20 years of combined
617 experience in diagnosing cluttering, applying the current LCD definition of cluttering. We also
618 include well-defined objective measurements of cluttering characteristics from language
619 transcripts. The sample of individuals with FXS was homogenous in age and cognitive and
620 language ability allowing for a more controlled sample. This was done in part by only including
621 males; however, we acknowledge that larger scale studies involving females with FXS are
622 needed. We also note our sample was 90% white, and although there was a range of economic
623 backgrounds represented in the sample over half of the participants came from households with
624 an income of over \$80,000. It is therefore unclear how generalizable findings are to more diverse
625 groups. Lack of diversity is a frequent problem in FXS research (Riley et al., 2017), and future
626 studies should increase efforts to recruit families from underrepresented populations. A final
627 limitation is that cluttering was determined from a 10-minute speech sample in a highly
628 controlled environment. The use of a longer sample or less controlled context may have allowed
629 for the expression of increased or more variable features of cluttering. However our use of a 10-
630 minute sample is similar to the sample lengths used in previous studies (e.g., Coppens-Hofman et
631 al., 2013; Eggers & Van Eerdenbrugh, 2018; Scaler Scott et al., 2014; Sudhalter & Belser, 2001).
632 We also note that cluttering may or may not be influenced by individual examiner's behavior,

633 such as asking more questions or making statements. We did attempt to control for this by
634 providing extensive training to examiners and following a standardized script, however analyses
635 of the amount and type of talking done by the examiner and its relationship to cluttering is
636 another possible future direction.

637 **Conclusions**

638 Clinicians who work with individuals with FXS should be aware that this genetic
639 diagnosis confers heightened risk for cluttering. As many as half of individuals with FXS may be
640 affected by cluttering, and aspects of the FXS phenotype such as ADHD and anxiety symptoms
641 may play a role in its presentation. Given the significant consequences of cluttering on
642 interpersonal relationships and ability to communicate effectively at school or work, this study
643 highlights the need for more research on cluttering in FXS, including intervention work.

644

645

Acknowledgements

646

This research was supported by the National Institutes of Health (R01HD024356;

647

P50HD103526, PI: Abbeduto; UL1TR001860, PI: Wun; 1R21DC017804; R03HD098291, PI:

648

Jessica Klusek) and the Research Participant Registry Core of the Carolina Institute for

649

Developmental Disabilities (P50HD103573). We would like to thank the families who

650

participated in this research study.

651

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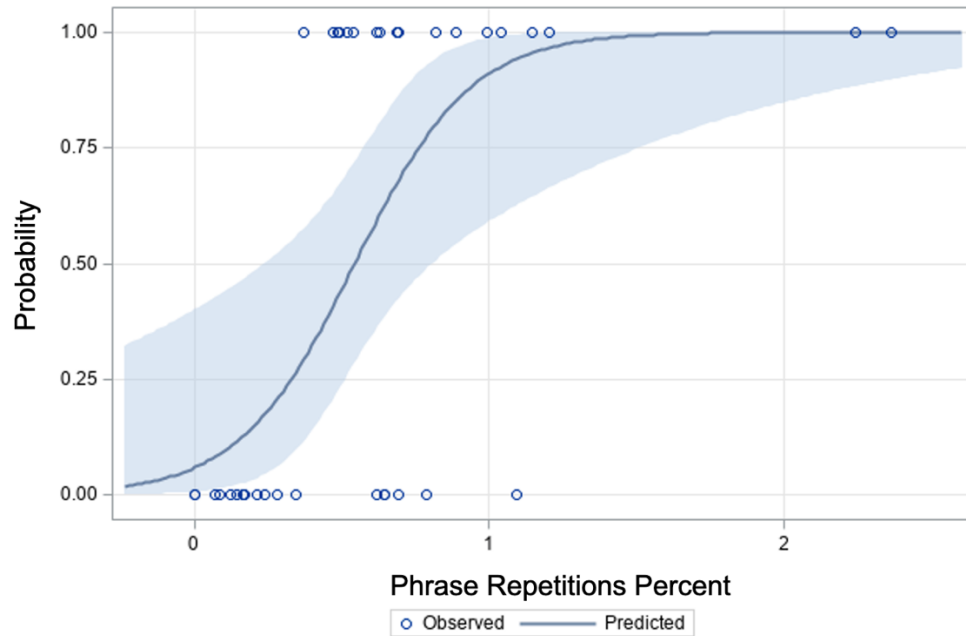
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Figures

959 Figure 1

960 *Probability of Cluttering Diagnosis by Phrase Repetition Percent with 95% Confidence Limits*

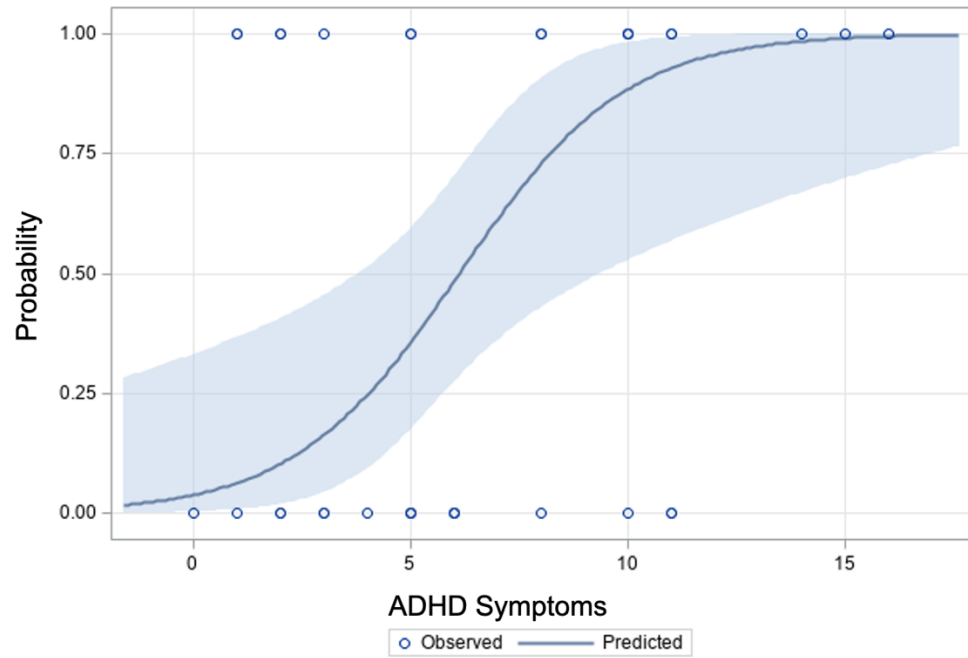


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963 Figure 2

964 *Probability of Cluttering Diagnosis by ADHD Symptoms with 95% Confidence Limits*

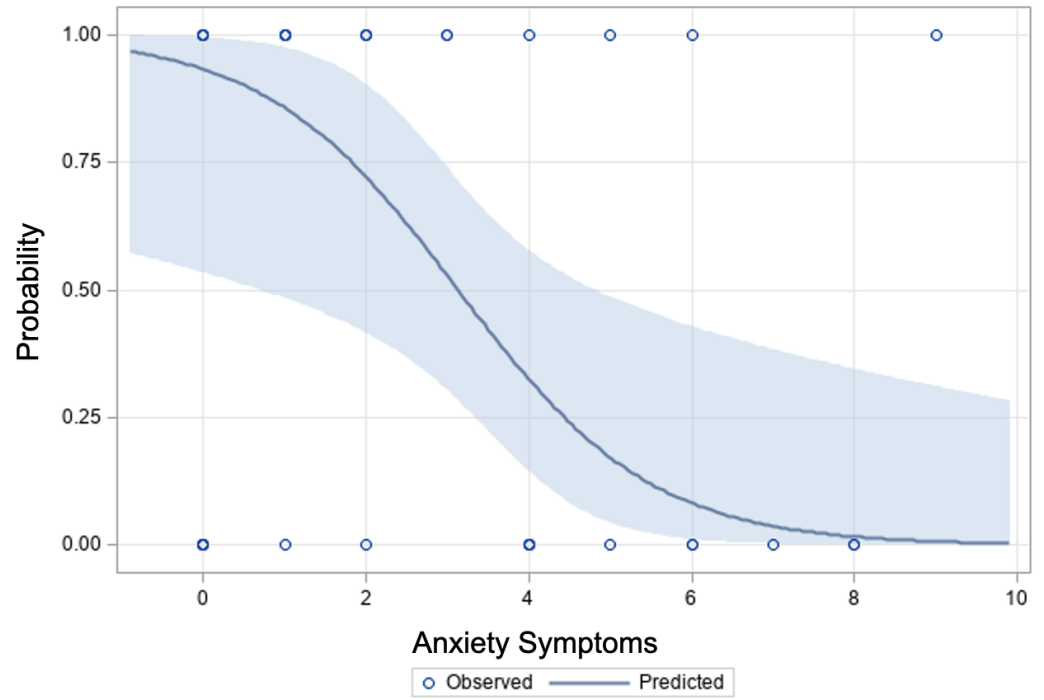


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967 Figure 3

968 *Probability of Cluttering by Anxiety Symptoms with 95% Confidence Limits*

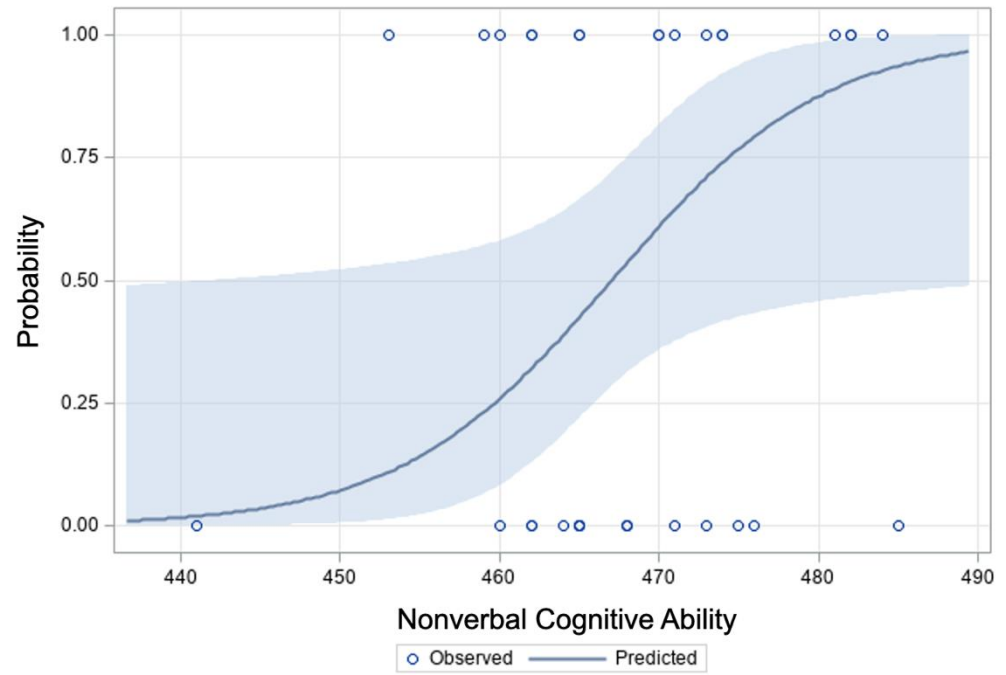


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971 Figure 4

972 *Probability of Cluttering by Cognitive Ability with 95% Confidence Limits*



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